History and Slides – 2024 March no 7

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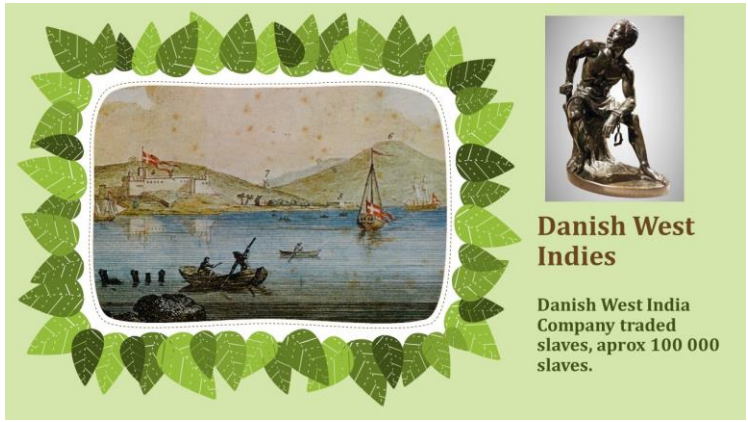
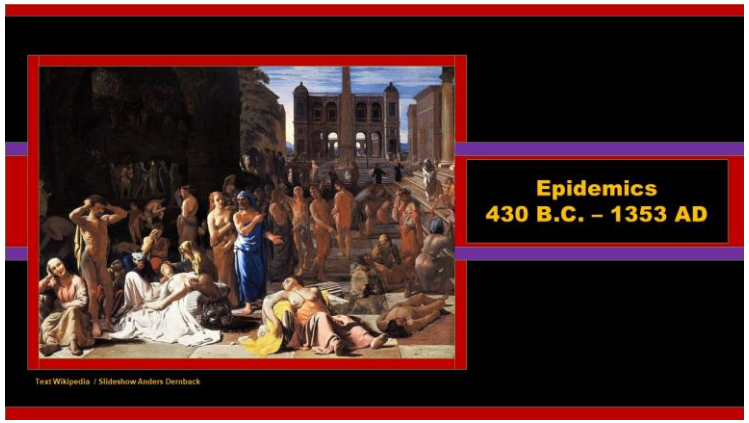




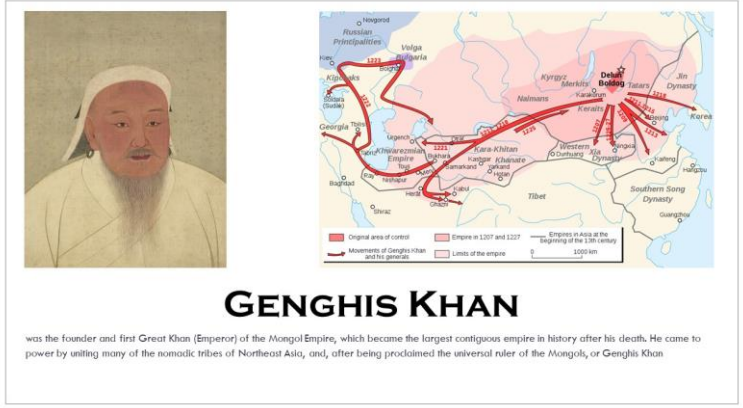
Anti Trust Law US

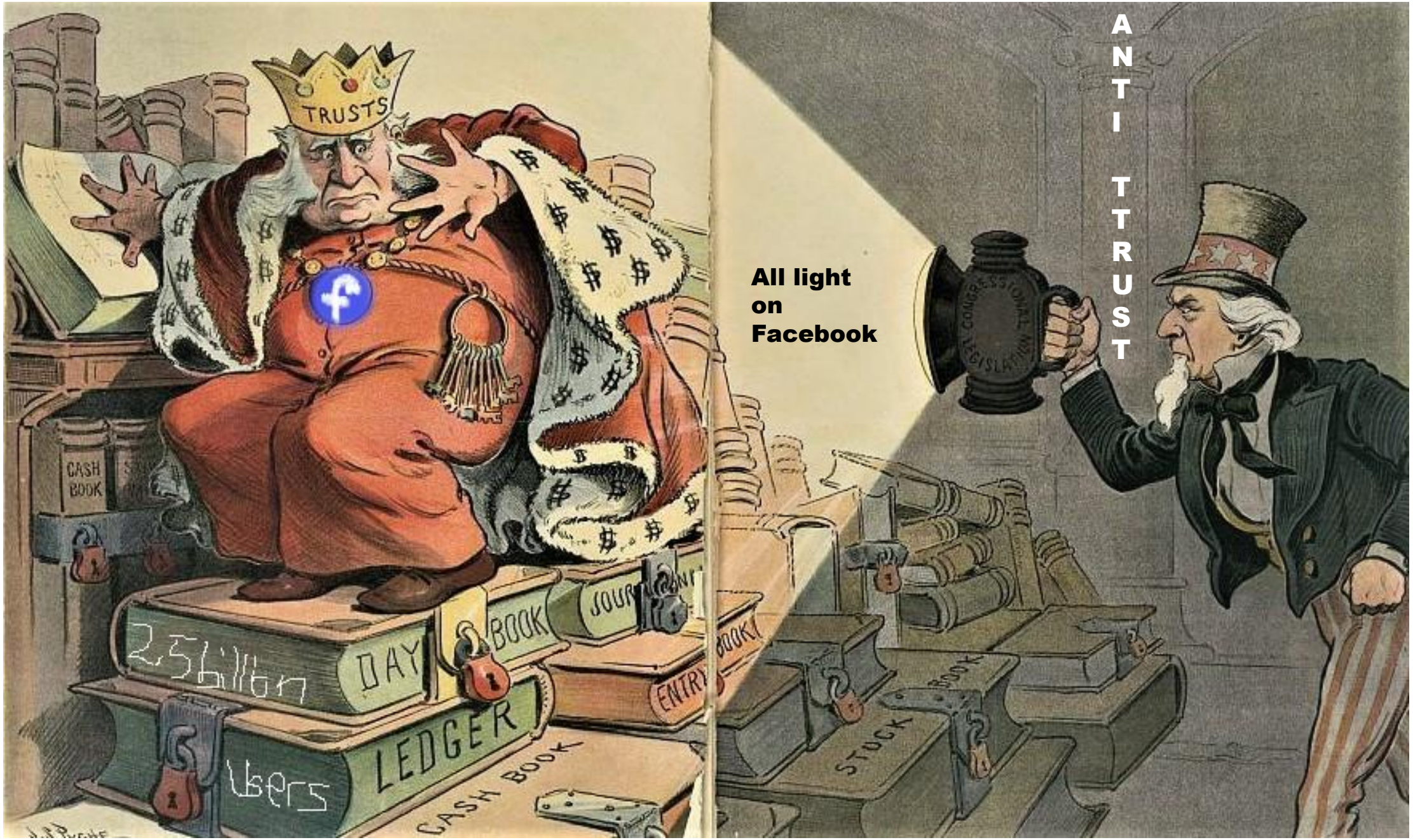
Danish West Indies

Epidemics 430 B.C. – 1353 AD

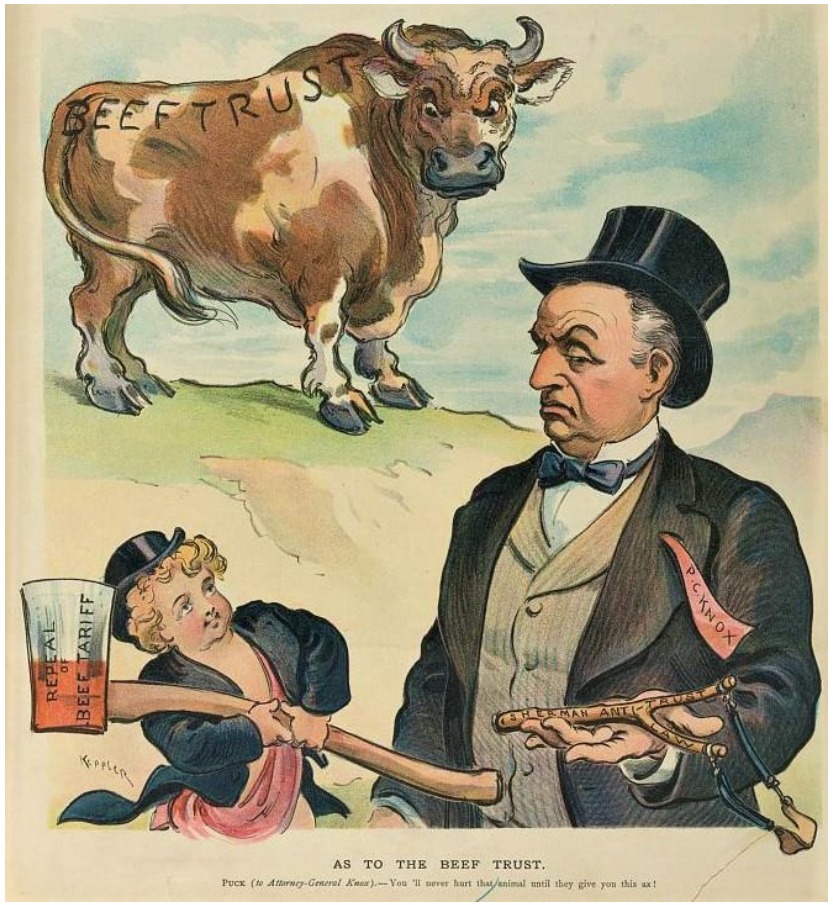
Follies

Genghis Khan


GENGHIS KHAN
was the founder and first Great Khan (Emperor) of the Mongol Empire, which became the largest contiguous empire in history after his death. He came to power by uniting many of the nomadic tribes of Northeast Asia, and, after being proclaimed the universal ruler of the Mongols, or Genghis Khan

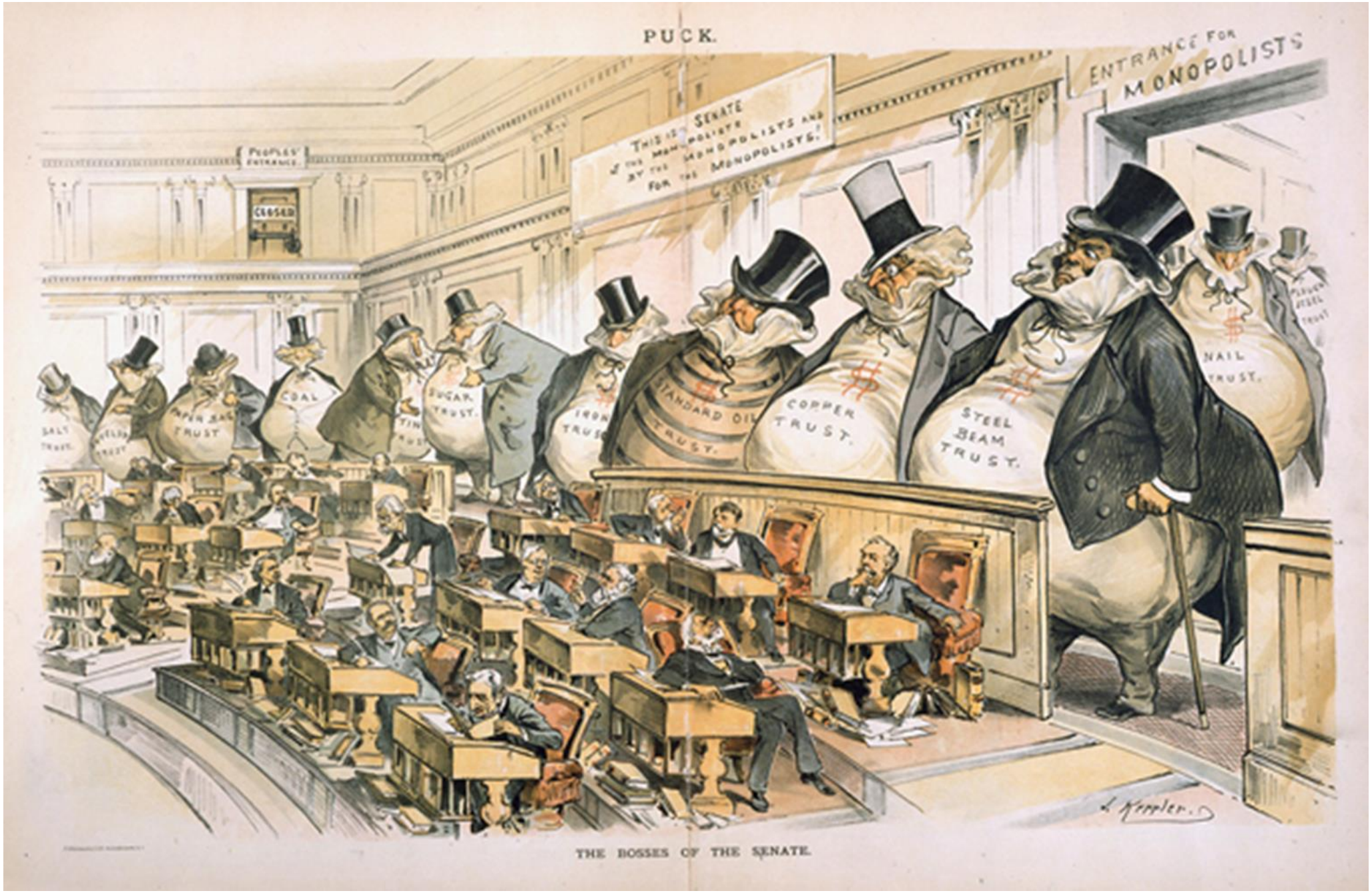

TRUSTS
CASH BOOK
2.5billion
DAY
BOOK
LEDGER
Users
CASH BOOK
All light on Facebook
ANTI TTRUST
CONGRESSIONAL LEGISLATION
STOCK BOOK

Facebook and Google dominate advertising. They're the first stops for many Americans seeking news. Apple dominates smartphones and laptop computers. Amazon is now the first stop for a third of all American consumers seeking to buy anything.



AS TO THE BEEF TRUST.

PUCK (*to Attorney-General Knox*).—You 'll never hurt that animal until they give you this ax!



"The Bosses of the Senate", a cartoon by Joseph Keppler

Sherman Antitrust Act of 1890

The Sherman Antitrust Act of 1890

(26 Stat. 209, 15 U.S.C. §§ 1–7) is a United States antitrust law that regulates competition among enterprises, which was passed by Congress under the presidency of Benjamin Harrison. It is named for Sen. John Sherman, its principal author.

The Sherman Act broadly prohibits anticompetitive agreements and unilateral conduct that monopolizes or attempts to monopolize the relevant market. The Act authorizes the Department of Justice to bring suits to enjoin (i.e. prohibit) conduct violating the Act, and additionally authorizes private parties injured by conduct violating the Act to bring suits for treble damages (i.e. three times as much money in damages as the violation cost them).

Text wikipedia / slideshow Anders Dernback 2020-04-25

Sherman Antitrust Act of 1890

The purpose of the [Sherman] Act is not to protect businesses from the working of the market; it is to protect the public from the failure of the market. The law directs itself not against conduct which is competitive, even severely so, but against conduct which unfairly tends to destroy competition itself.

According to its authors, it was not intended to impact market gains obtained by honest means, by benefiting the consumers more than the competitors. Senator George Hoar of Massachusetts, another author of the Sherman Act, said the following:

... [a person] who merely by superior skill and intelligence...got the whole business because nobody could do it as well as he could was not a monopolist...(but was if) it involved something like the use of means which made it impossible for other persons to engage in fair competition.

Notable cases filed under the act include:

United States v. Workingmen's Amalgamated Council of New Orleans (1893), which was the first to hold that the law applied to labor unions (reversed by the Clayton Antitrust Act).

Chesapeake & Ohio Fuel Co. v. United States (1902), in which the trust was dissolved

Northern Securities Co. v. United States (1904), which reached the Supreme Court, dissolved the company and set many precedents for interpretation.

Hale v. Henkel (1906) also reached the Supreme Court. Precedent was set for the production of documents by an officer of a company, and the self-incrimination of the officer in his or her testimony to the grand jury. Hale was an officer of the American Tobacco Co.

Standard Oil Co. of New Jersey v. United States (1911), which broke up the company based on geography, and contributed to the Panic of 1910–11.

United States v. American Tobacco Co. (1911), which split the company into four.

United States v. General Electric Co (1911), where GE was judged to have violated the Sherman Anti-Trust Act, along with International General Electric, Philips, Sylvania, Tungsol, and Consolidated and Chicago Miniature. Corning and Westinghouse made consent decrees.

Federal Baseball Club v. National League (1922) in which the Supreme Court ruled that Major League Baseball was not interstate commerce and was not subject to the antitrust law.

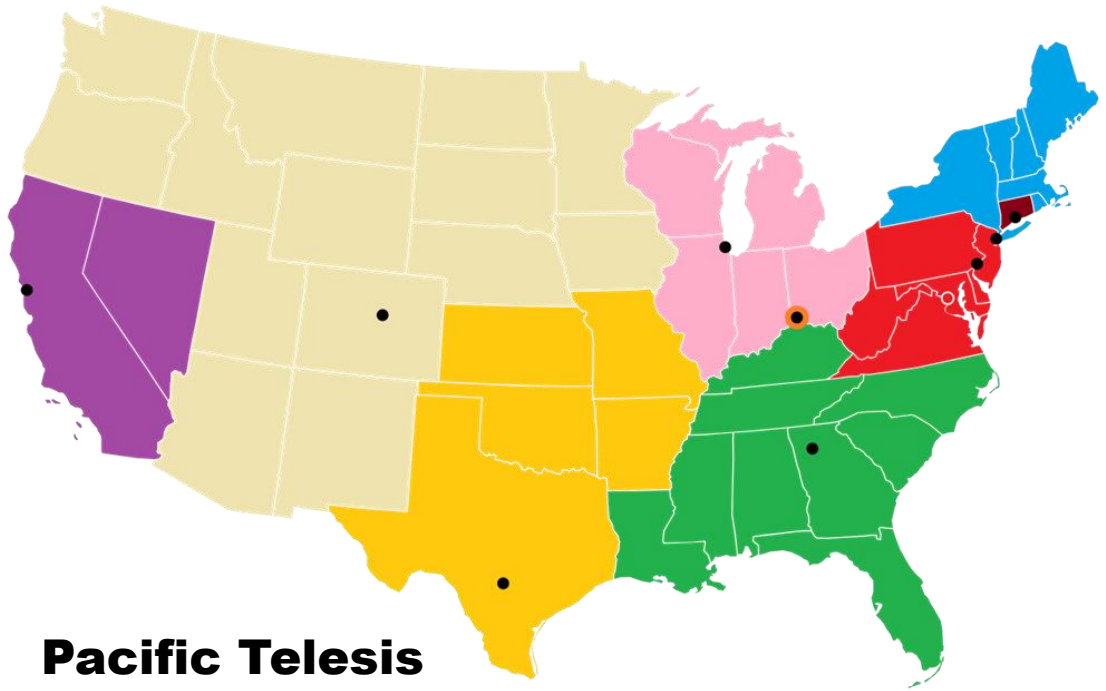
United States v. National City Lines (1953), related to the General Motors streetcar conspiracy.

United States v. AT&T Co., which was settled in 1982 and resulted in the breakup of the company.

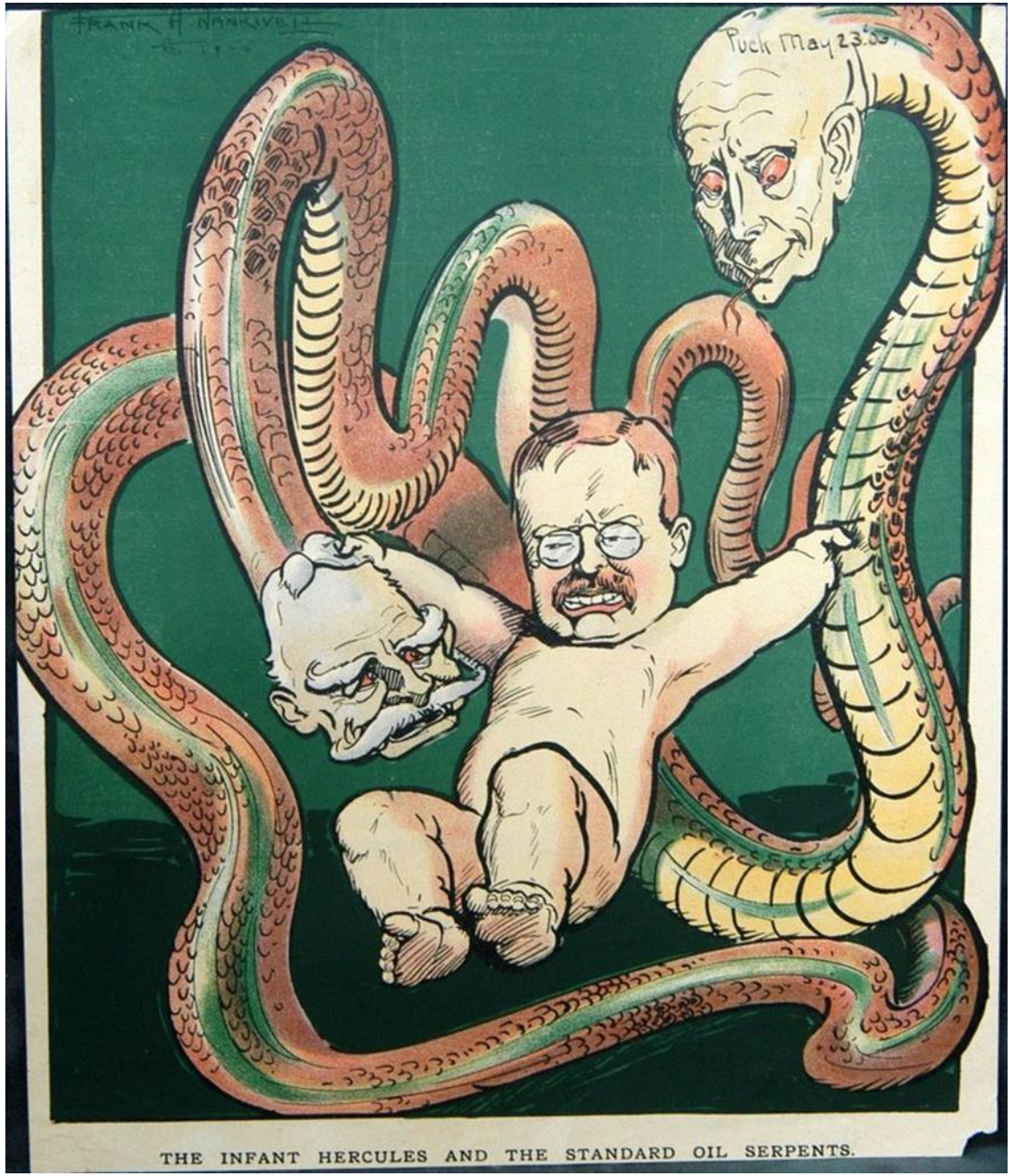
United States v. Microsoft Corp. was settled in 2001 without the breakup of the company.

Breakup of the Bell System

The breakup of the Bell System was mandated on January 8, 1982 by an agreed consent decree providing that AT&T Corporation would, as had been initially proposed by AT&T, relinquish control of the Bell Operating Companies that had provided local telephone service in the United States and Canada up until that point. This effectively took the monopoly that was the Bell System and split it into entirely separate companies that would continue to provide telephone service. AT&T would continue to be a provider of long-distance service, while the now-independent Regional Bell Operating Companies (RBOCs) would provide local service, and would no longer be directly supplied with equipment from AT&T subsidiary Western Electric.



Pacific Telesis
US West
Ameritech
Southwestern Bell Corporation
BellSouth
Bell Atlantic
NYNEX
Southern New England Telephone
Cincinnati Bell



By 1890, **Standard Oil** controlled 88 percent of the refined oil flows in the United States. The state of Ohio successfully sued Standard, compelling the dissolution of the trust in 1892. But Standard simply separated Standard Oil of Ohio and kept control of it.
By 1911, with public outcry at a climax, the Supreme Court of the United States ruled, in Standard Oil Co. of New Jersey v. United States, that Standard Oil of New Jersey must be dissolved under the Sherman Antitrust Act and **split into 34 companies.**

Rockefeller ran the company as its chairman, until his retirement in 1897. He remained the major shareholder, and in 1911, with the dissolution of the Standard Oil trust into 34 smaller companies, Rockefeller became the richest person in modern history

U.S. President Theodore Roosevelt depicted as the infant Hercules grappling with Standard Oil in a 1906 Puck magazine cartoon

Over time, the federal courts have developed a body of law under the Sherman Act making certain types of anticompetitive conduct per se illegal, and subjecting other types of conduct to case-by-case analysis regarding whether the conduct unreasonably restrains trade.

The law attempts to prevent the artificial raising of prices by restriction of trade or supply. "Innocent monopoly", or monopoly achieved solely by merit, is perfectly legal, but acts by a monopolist to artificially preserve that status, or nefarious dealings to create a monopoly, are not. The purpose of the Sherman Act is not to protect competitors from harm from legitimately successful businesses, nor to prevent businesses from gaining honest profits from consumers, but rather to preserve a competitive marketplace to protect consumers from abuses.

The purpose of the [Sherman] Act is not to protect businesses from the working of the market; it is to protect the public from the failure of the market. The law directs itself not against conduct which is competitive, even severely so, but against conduct which unfairly tends to destroy competition itself.

The Sherman Act is divided into three sections. Section 1 delineates and prohibits specific means of anticompetitive conduct, while Section 2 deals with end results that are anti-competitive in nature. Thus, these sections supplement each other in an effort to prevent businesses from violating the spirit of the Act, while technically remaining within the letter of the law. Section 3 simply extends the provisions of Section 1 to U.S. territories and the District of Columbia.

Section 1:

Every contract, combination in the form of trust or otherwise, or conspiracy, in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States, or with foreign nations, is declared to be illegal.

Section 2:

Every person who shall monopolize, or attempt to monopolize, or combine or conspire with any other person or persons, to monopolize any part of the trade or commerce among the several States, or with foreign nations, shall be deemed guilty of a felony

The Clayton Antitrust Act, passed in 1914, proscribes certain additional activities that had been discovered to fall outside the scope of the Sherman Antitrust Act. For example, the Clayton Act added certain practices to the list of impermissible activities:

price discrimination between different purchasers, if such discrimination tends to create a monopoly
exclusive dealing agreements
tying arrangements
mergers and acquisitions that substantially reduce market competition.

The Robinson–Patman Act of 1936 amended the Clayton Act. The amendment proscribed certain anti-competitive practices in which manufacturers engaged in price discrimination against equally-situated distributors.

Congress claimed power to pass the Sherman Act through its constitutional authority to regulate interstate commerce. Therefore, federal courts only have jurisdiction to apply the Act to conduct that restrains or substantially affects either interstate commerce or trade within the District of Columbia. This requires that the plaintiff must show that the conduct occurred during the flow of interstate commerce or had an appreciable effect on some activity that occurs during interstate commerce. Modern trends:
For example, a conspiracy could be inferred based on parallel conduct, etc. That is, plaintiffs were only required to show that a conspiracy was conceivable. Since the 1970s, however, courts have held plaintiffs to higher standards, giving antitrust defendants an opportunity to resolve cases in their favor before significant discovery under FRCP 12(b). That is, to overcome a motion to dismiss, plaintiffs, under Bell Atlantic Corp. v. Twombly, must plead facts consistent with FRCP 8(a) sufficient to show that a conspiracy is plausible (and not merely conceivable or possible).

Monopoly

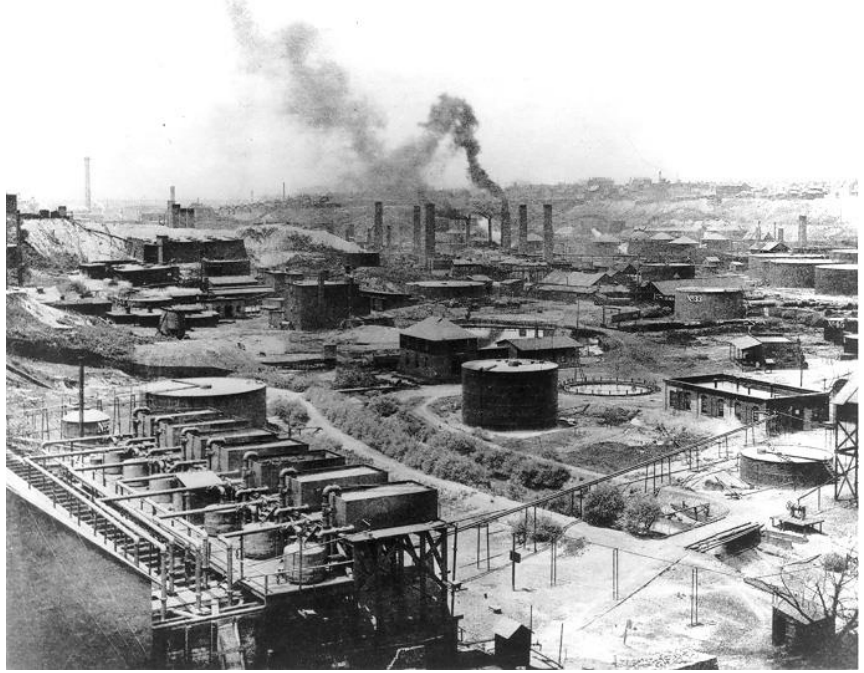
Section 2 of the Act forbade monopoly. In Section 2 cases, the court has, again on its own initiative, drawn a distinction between coercive and innocent monopoly. The act is not meant to punish businesses that come to dominate their market passively or on their own merit, only those that intentionally dominate the market through misconduct, which generally consists of conspiratorial conduct of the kind forbidden by Section 1 of the Sherman Act, or Section 3 of the Clayton Act.

Antitrust law was viewed as a means of preventing giant corporations from undermining democracy. "If we will not endure a king as a political power," thundered Ohio's Senator John Sherman, the sponsor of the nation's first antitrust law in 1890, "we should not endure a king over the production, transportation and sale" of what the nation produced.

Advertisement
In the second Gilded Age as in the first, giant firms at the center of the American economy are distorting the market and our politics.

History of United States antitrust law

The history of United States antitrust law is generally taken to begin with the Sherman Antitrust Act 1890, although some form of policy to regulate competition in the market economy has existed throughout the common law's history. Although "trust" had a technical legal meaning, the word was commonly used to denote big business, especially a large, growing manufacturing conglomerate of the sort that suddenly emerged in great numbers in the 1880s and 1890s. The Interstate Commerce Act of 1887 began a shift towards federal rather than state regulation of big business. It was followed by the Sherman Antitrust Act of 1890, the Clayton Antitrust Act and the Federal Trade Commission Act of 1914, the Robinson-Patman Act of 1936, and the Celler-Kefauver Act of 1950.



Standard Oil (Refinery No. 1 in Cleveland, Ohio, pictured) was a major company broken up under United States antitrust laws.

As Senator John Sherman put it, "If we will not endure a king as a political power we should not endure a king over the production, transportation, and sale of any of the necessaries of life." **Congress passed** the **Sherman Antitrust Act almost unanimously in 1890**, and it remains the core of antitrust policy. The Act makes it illegal to try to restrain trade or to form a monopoly. It gives the Justice Department the mandate to go to federal court for orders to stop illegal behavior or to impose remedies.

President Theodore Roosevelt sued 45 companies under the Sherman Act, while William **Howard Taft sued 75. In** 1902, **Roosevelt stopped the formation of the Northern Securities** Company, which threatened to monopolize transportation in the Northwest (see Northern Securities Co. v. United States).

One of the more well known trusts was the **Standard Oil Company; John D. Rockefeller** in the 1870s and 1880s had used economic threats against competitors and secret rebate deals with railroads to build what was called a monopoly in the oil business, though some minor competitors remained in business. In 1911 the Supreme Court agreed that in recent years (1900–1904) Standard had violated the Sherman Act (see Standard Oil Co. of New Jersey v. United States).

It broke the monopoly into three dozen separate companies that competed with one another, including **Standard Oil** of New Jersey (later known as **Exxon** and now ExxonMobil), Standard Oil of Indiana (**Amoco**), Standard Oil Company of New York (**Mobil**, again, later merged with Exxon to form ExxonMobil), of California (**Chevron**), and so on. In approving the breakup the Supreme Court added the "rule of reason": not all big companies, and not all monopolies, are evil; and the courts (not the executive branch) are to make that decision. To be **harmful**, a trust had to somehow **damage the economic environment of its**

"I Like a Little Competition"—J. P. Morgan

In 1914, Congress passed the Clayton Antitrust Act to increase the government's capacity to intervene and break up big business. The Act removed the application of antitrust laws to trade unions, and introduced controls on the merger of corporations. United States Steel Corporation, which was much larger than Standard Oil, won its antitrust suit in 1920 despite never having delivered the benefits to consumers that Standard Oil did. In fact, it lobbied for tariff protection that reduced competition, and so contending that it was one of the "good trusts" that benefited the economy is somewhat doubtful. Likewise International Harvester survived its court test, while other trusts were broken up in tobacco, meatpacking, and bathtub fixtures. Over the years hundreds of executives of competing companies who met together illegally to fix prices went to federal prison.

In 1982 AT&T was broken up into one long-distance company and seven regional "Baby Bells", arguing that competition should replace monopoly for the benefit of consumers and the economy as a whole. The pace of business takeovers quickened in the 1990s, but whenever one large corporation sought to acquire another, it first had to obtain the approval of either the FTC or the Justice Department. Often the government demanded that certain subsidiaries be sold so that the new company would not monopolize a particular geographical market.

In 1999 a coalition of 19 states and the federal Justice Department sued Microsoft. A highly publicized trial found that Microsoft had strong-armed many companies in an attempt to prevent competition from the Netscape browser. In 2000, the trial court ordered Microsoft split in two to punish it, and prevent it from future misbehavior; however the Court of Appeals reversed the decision and removed the judge from the case for improperly discussing the case with the media while it was still pending. With the case in front of a new judge, Microsoft and the government settled, with the government dropping the case in return for Microsoft agreeing to cease many of the practices the government challenged. In his defense, CEO Bill Gates argued that Microsoft always worked on behalf of the consumer and that splitting the company would diminish efficiency and slow the pace of software development.

THE POLICY OF THE AMERICAN TYPE FOUNDERS COMPANY

To continually create type designs which improve the quality and increase the demand for printing everywhere.

To coöperate in every well considered movement which aims to benefit the printing industry and enhance its prestige.

To discourage unhealthy competition and encourage such trade methods as will increase prosperity in existing plants.

R. W. Nelson
President

The printing equipment company ATF explicitly states in its 1923 manual that its goal is to 'discourage unhealthy competition' in the printing industry.

Case started against Facebook (2019)

Facebook is a social networking service launched as TheFacebook on February 4, 2004. It was founded by Mark Zuckerberg with his college roommates and fellow Harvard University students Eduardo Saverin, Andrew McCollum, Dustin Moskovitz and Chris Hughes. The website's membership was initially limited by the founders to Harvard students, but was expanded to other colleges in the Boston area, the Ivy League, and gradually most universities in the United States and Canada, corporations, and by September 2006, to everyone with a valid email address along with an age requirement of being 13 and older

Users: 2016-12-31 1 860 000 000

On March 12, 2012, Yahoo! filed suit in a U.S. federal court against Facebook weeks before the scheduled Facebook initial public offering. In its court filing, Yahoo! said that Facebook had infringed on ten of its patents covering advertising, privacy controls and social networking.

ROOSEVELT
BRYAN
ANTI TRUST LAWS
PEACE MOVEMENT
CAMPAIGN FUND REFORM
"PEERLESS LEADER"
GOV'T CONTROL OF RAIL-ROADS
RECIPROCITY
ANTI-MONEY DEVIL
INCOME TAX
OVER-CAPITALIZATION
ANTI WALL ST.
RATE REGULATION
ANTI-REBATES

On 22 May , 2012, regulators from Wall Street's Financial Industry Regulatory Authority announced that they had begun to investigate whether banks underwriting Facebook had improperly shared information only with select clients, rather than the general public. Massachusetts Secretary of State William Galvin subpoenaed Morgan Stanley over the same issue. The allegations sparked "fury" among some investors and led to the immediate filing of several lawsuits, one of them a class action suit claiming more than $2.5 billion in losses due to the IPO. Bloomberg estimated that retail investors may have lost aproximately $630 million on Facebook stock since its debut.

Facebook payed 5 000 000 000 in Settlement fee

Facebook Agrees to Pay $5 Billion and Implement Robust New Protections of User Information in Settlement of Data-Privacy Claims

Facebook will Pay the Largest Civil Penalty in a Data-Privacy Case in United States History

The Department of Justice, together with the Federal Trade Commission (FTC), today announced a settlement that requires Facebook to implement a comprehensive, multi-faceted set of compliance measures designed to improve user privacy and provide additional protections for user information. The settlement also requires Facebook to pay an unprecedented $5 billion civil penalty — the most ever imposed in an FTC case and among the largest civil penalties ever obtained by the federal government.

In a complaint filed today, the United States alleges that Facebook violated an administrative order issued by the FTC in 2012 by misleading users about the extent to which third-party application developers could access users' personal information. The complaint further alleges that Facebook violated the Federal Trade Commission Act by deceiving users about their use of this and additional sensitive information.

"**Despite repeated promises** to its millions of world-wide users that they could control how their personal information is shared, **Facebook** took **steps to undermine consumers' choices**," said FTC Chairman Joe Simons. "The magnitude of the **$5 billion penalty** and sweeping conduct relief are unprecedented in the history of the FTC. The relief is designed not only to punish previous violations but, more importantly, to change Facebook's entire privacy culture to decrease the likelihood of continued violations. The Commission takes consumer privacy seriously, and will enforce FTC orders to the fullest extent of the law."

Danish West Indies

Danish West India Company traded slaves, aprox 100 000 slaves.

300 travels and 96 100 imported slaves from Africa to Danish West India year 1674 - 1802

Annual export of slaves from West Africa Year 1761 – 1810 (estimated)

Country	Annual average	Total slaves
Britain	27 700	1 385 300 (exact: 1 529 180 (1761-1807)
France	10 900	546 500
Portugal	20 200	1 010 400
Netherlands	3 500	173 600
Denmark	1 100	56 800
U.S.A.	3 300	166 900

Philip D. Curtin

Schimmelmann's Copenhagen Palace

Danish West India Company

In March 1659 the Danish Africa Company was started in Glückstadt by the originally Finnish Hendrik Carloff, two Dutchmen Isaac Coymans and Nicolaes Pancras and two German merchants, Vincent Klingenberg and Jacob del Boe. Their mandate included trade with the Danish Gold Coast in present-day Ghana. In 1671 the Africa Company was incorporated in the Danish West India Company. The West India Company was organized on November 20, 1670, and formally chartered by King Christian V on March 11, 1671.

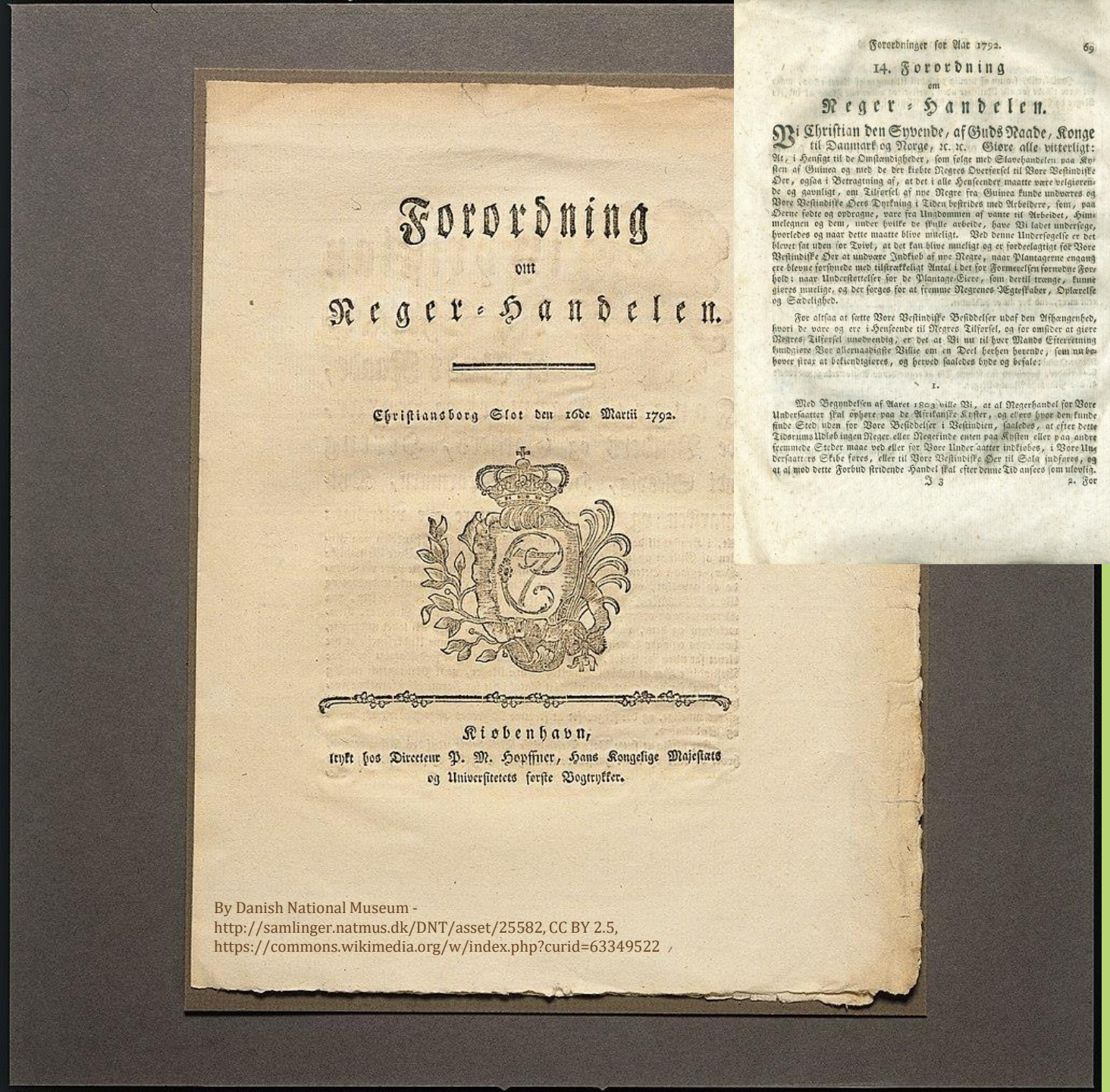
The Danes settled in St. Thomas in 1668. The first successful colonization of Sankt Thomas employed ships of the Royal Dano-Norwegian Navy, the yacht Den forgyldte Krone and the frigate Færøe (referring to the islands, but often erroneously translated as Pharaoh), but the company quickly began employing ships of their own, while occasionally relying on the royal navy for escorts and protection. From August 30, 1680, it became known as the West India–Guinea Company. At first, the company had difficulties being profitable, but eventually it began to increase revenue by raising taxes and bringing all colonial exports into Copenhagen directly. St. John was purchased in 1718 and St. Croix from the French in 1733.

In the 17th and 18th centuries, the company flourished from the North Atlantic triangular trade routes. Slaves from the Gold Coast of Africa were traded for molasses and rum in the West Indies. The company administered the colonies until 1754, when the Danish government's "Chamber of Revenues" took control. From 1760 to 1848, the governing body was known as Vestindisk-guineiske rente- og generaltoldkammer. This led to a brief establishment of Det Guineiske kompagni via Royal resolution of March 18, 1765, to maintain the trade with the Danish Gold Coast colonies. In November, they received the forts of Christiansborg and Fredensborg for 20 years. The company, however, never enjoyed a trade monopoly like the Dutch West India Company. Competition for trade remained among all Danish, Norwegian, Schleswig and Holstein companies.

The financially troubled company was liquidated on November 22, 1776. In anticipation of this, the Dano-Norwegian government took control of the granted forts from August–September 1775.

Map detail showing Danish West Indies Company's headquarters and dock in Christianshavn, Copenhagen

Danish Law About slavery



Forordning
om
Neger-Handelen.

Christiansborg Slot den 16de Martii 1792.

Kiøbenhavn,
trykt hos Directeur P. M. Hopffner, Hans Kongelige Majestats
og Universitetets første Bogtrykker.

Forordninger for Aar 1792. 69

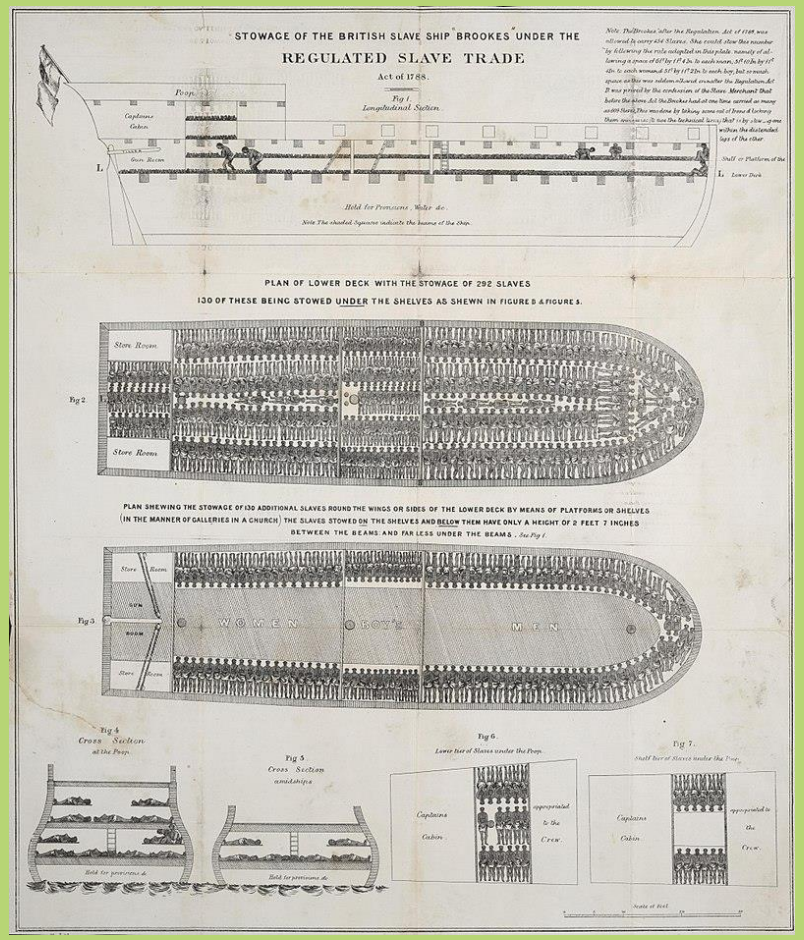
14. Forordning
om
Neger-Handelen.

Vi Christian den Syvende, af Guds Naade, Konge til Danmark og Norge, ꝛc. ꝛc. Giøre alle vitterligt: At, i Henseende til de Omstændigheder, som følge med Slavehandelen paa Kysten af Guinea og med de der købte Negres Overførsel til Vore Vestindiske Øer, ogsaa i Betragtning af, at det i alle Henseender maatte være velgiørende og gavnligt, om Tilførsel af nye Negre fra Guinea kunde undværes og Vore Vestindiske Øers Dyrkning i Tiden bestrides med Arbeidere, som, paa Øerne fødte og opdragne, vare fra Ungdommen af vante til Arbeidet, Himmelegnen og dem, under hvilke de skulle arbeide, have Vi ladet undersøge, hvorledes og naar dette maatte blive muligt. Ved denne Undersøgelse er det blevet sat uden for Tvivl, at det kan blive muligt og er fordeelagtigt for Vore Vestindiske Øer at undvære Indkiøb af nye Negre, naar Plantagerne engang ere blevne forsynede med tilstrækkeligt Antal i det for Formørelsen fornødne Forhold; naar Understøttelser for de Plantage-Eiere, som dertil trænge, kunne gieres muelige, og der sørges for at fremme Negrenes Ægteskaber, Opdrættelse og Sædelighed.

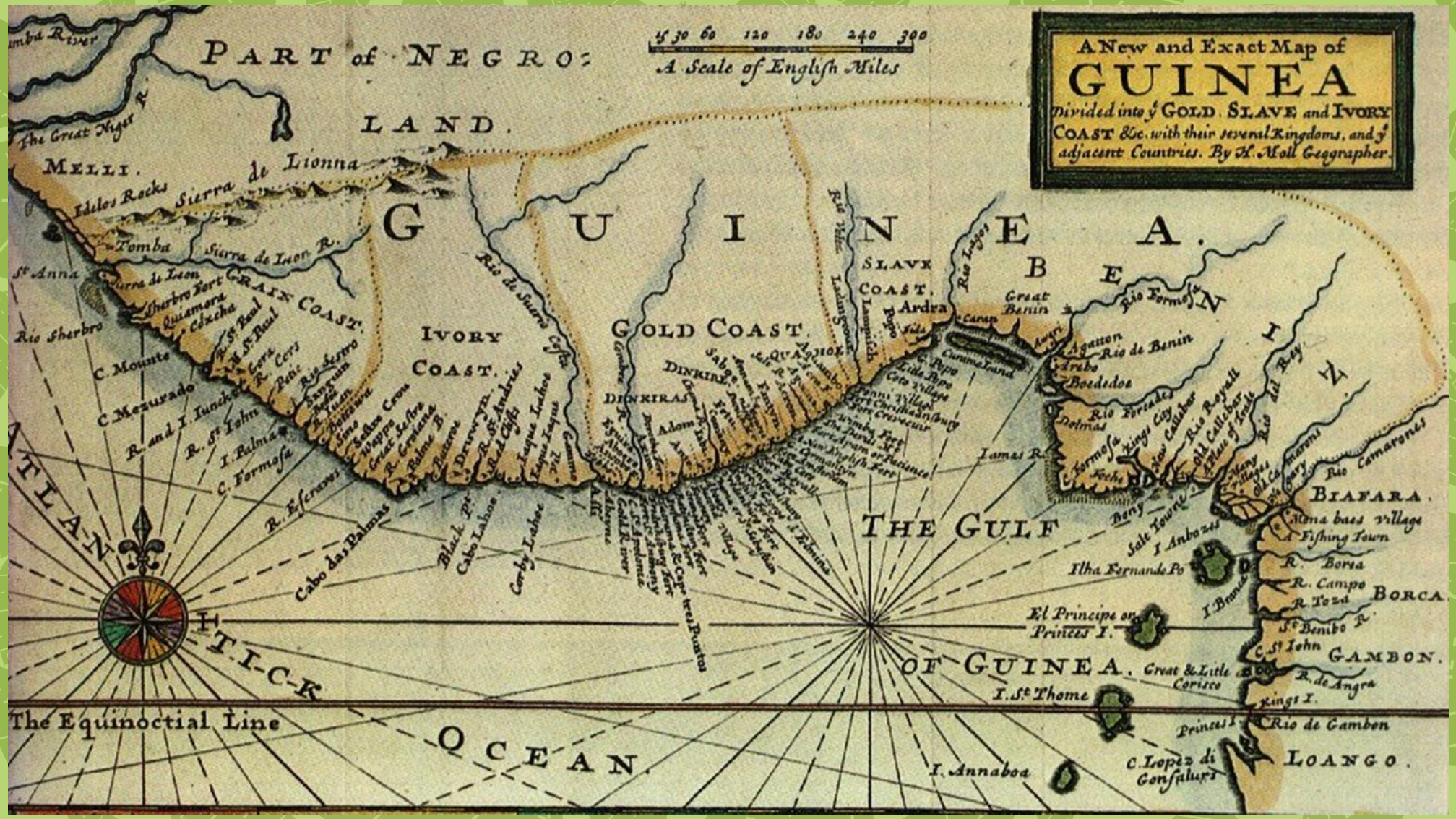
For altsaa at sætte Vore Vestindiske Besiddelser udaf den Afhængenhed, hvori de vare og ere i Henseende til Negres Tilførsel, og for omsider at giøre Negres Tilførsel unødvendig, er det at Vi nu til hver Mands Efterretning kundgiøre Vor allernaadigste Villie om en Deel herhen hørende, som nu behøver strax at bekendtgiøres, og hvorved saaledes bydes og befales:

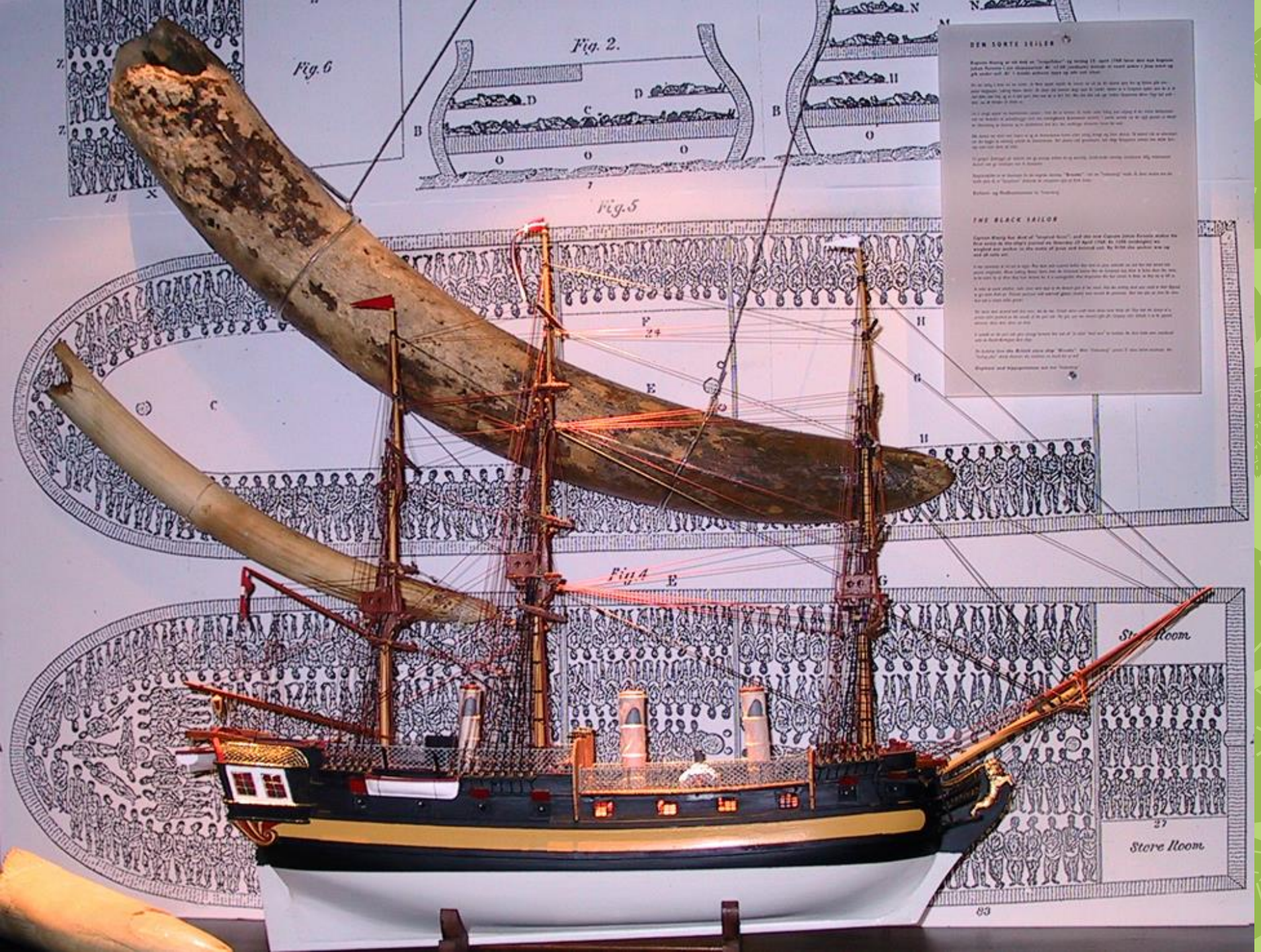
I.

Med Begyndelsen af Aaret 1803 ville Vi, at al Negerhandel for Vore Undersaatter skal ophøre paa de Afrikanske Kyster, og ellers hvor den kunde finde Sted, uden for Vore Besiddelser i Vestindien, saaledes, at efter dette Tidsrums Udløb ingen Neger eller Negerinde enten paa Kysten eller paa andre fremmede Steder maae ved eller for Vore Undersaatter indkiøbes, i Vore Undersaatters Skibe føres, eller til Vore Vestindiske Øer til Sala indføres, og at al med dette Forbud stridende Handel skal efter denne Tid ansees som ulovlig.


STOWAGE OF THE BRITISH SLAVE SHIP "BROOKES" UNDER THE
REGULATED SLAVE TRADE
Act of 1788.
Fig 1.
Longitudinal Section.
PLAN OF LOWER DECK WITH THE STOWAGE OF 292 SLAVES
130 OF THESE BEING STOWED UNDER THE SHELVES AS SHEWN IN FIGURE 5 & FIGURE 3.
Store Room.
Store Rooms
PLAN SHEWING THE STOWAGE OF 130 ADDITIONAL SLAVES ROUND THE WINGS OR SIDES OF THE LOWER DECK BY MEANS OF PLATFORMS OR SHELVES
(IN THE MANNER OF GALLERIES IN A CHURCH) THE SLAVES STOWED ON THE SHELVES AND BELOW THEM HAVE ONLY A HEIGHT OF 2 FEET 7 INCHES
BETWEEN THE BEAMS AND FAR LESS UNDER THE BEAMS.
WOMEN
BOYS
MEN
Fig 4.
Cross Section
at the Poop.
Fig 5.
Cross Section
amidships
Fig 6.
Lower tier of Slaves under the Poop.
Fig 7.
Shelf tier of Slaves under the Poop.
Captains
Cabin
appropriated to the Crew.

By Danish National Museum - http://samlinger.natmus.dk/DNT/asset/25582, CC BY 2.5, https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=63349522

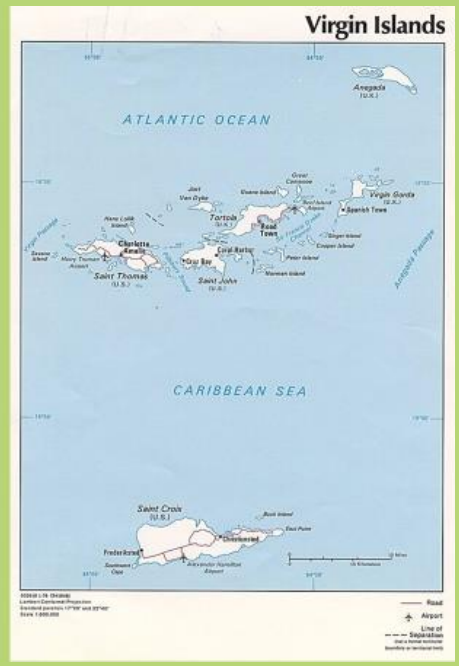

A New and Exact Map of
GUINEA
Divided into ye GOLD, SLAVE and IVORY
COAST &c. with their several Kingdoms, and ye
adjacent Countries. By H. Moll Geographer.
A Scale of English Miles
PART of NEGROLAND.
GUINEA.
MELLI.
Sierra de Lionna
Idolos Rocks
Tomba
Sierra de Leon R.
GRAIN COAST.
Rio Sherbro
C. Mounte
C. Mezurado
C. Formosa
R. Esterous
IVORY COAST.
GOLD COAST.
DINKIRA
SLAVE COAST.
Ardra
Great Benin
Rio Formosa
BENIN
Rio de Benin
Arebo
Boededos
Rio Forcados
Kings City
Rio Regrate
Old Calliber
New Calliber
Rio del Rey
Camarones
BIAFARA.
Fishing Town
Borca
Rio Campo
Rio Bembo
GAMBON.
Rio de Angra
Kings I.
Rio de Gambon
LOANGO.
C. Lopez di Gonsalvez
THE GULF OF GUINEA.
Ilha Fernando Po
I. Anobon
El Principe or Princes I.
I. St Thome
I. Annaboa
Great & Little Corisco
Princes I.
Cabo das Palmas
Cabo Lahoe
Corby Lahoe
Black Pt.
Rio de Sestros Costa
Rio Volta
Rio Lagos
Rio Formosa
Rio del Rey
Camarones
Jamas R.
Benny
Salt Towne
Gold R. river
Accany
Akim
Akanie
Akanie
Akanie

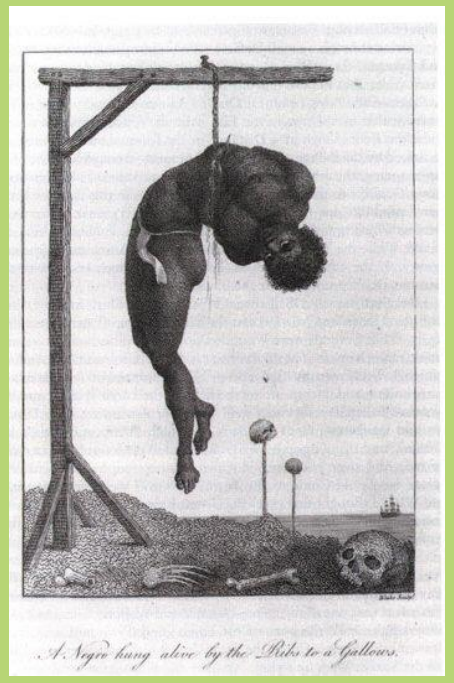


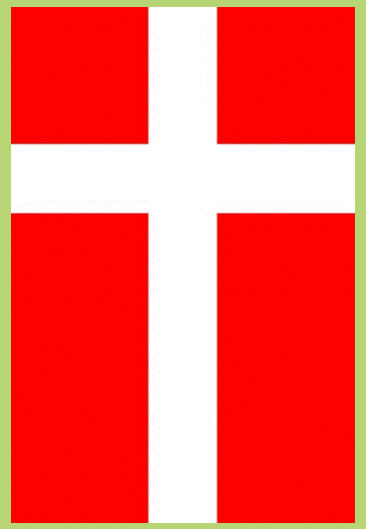
Ernst Schimmelmann

The Danish West Indies (Danish: Dansk Vestindien) or Danish Antilles was a Danish colony in the Caribbean, consisting of the islands of Saint Thomas with 32 square miles (83 km2); Saint John with 19 square miles (49 km2); and Saint Croix with 84 square miles (220 km2). The Danish West India Guinea Company annexed the uninhabited island of Saint Thomas in 1672 and St. John in 1675. In 1733, Saint Croix was purchased from the French West India Company. When the Danish company went bankrupt in 1755, the King of Denmark-Norway assumed direct control of the three islands. Britain occupied the Danish West Indies in 1801–1802 and 1807–1815, during the Napoleonic Wars.

St. Thomas had a population of 12,800 people and had sugar and cotton as its chief exports. St. Thomas city was the capital of the island, then a free port, and the chief station of the steam-packets between Southampton, in England, and the West Indies.
St. John had a population of about 2,600 people.
St. Croix, though inferior to St. Thomas in commerce, was of greater importance in extent and fertility, with 25,600 people,

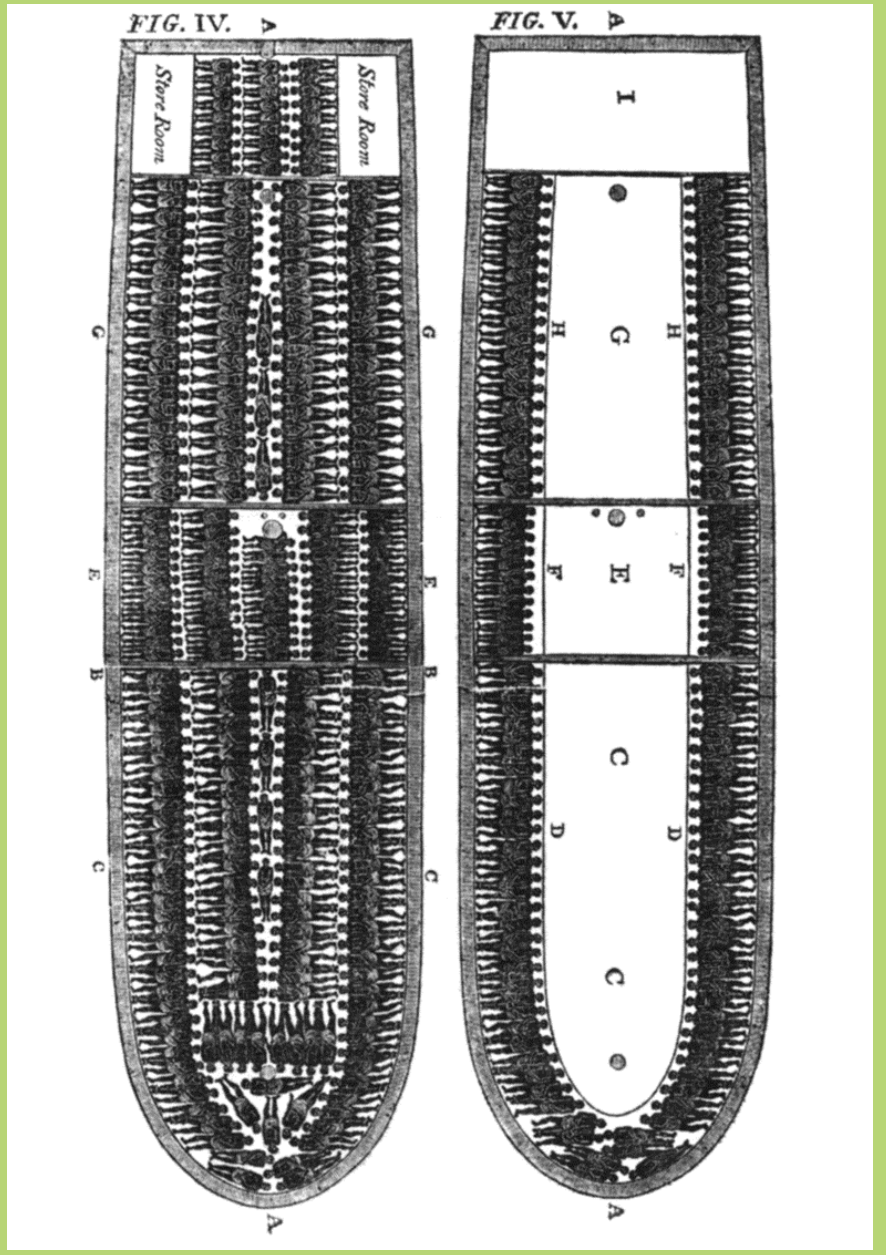






Danish West Indies, Saint Croix, 2 dalere (1898)

Jørgen Iversen Dyppel, a successful trader on Saint Christopher, was made governor and the king provided convicts from his jails and two vessels for the establishment of the colony, the yacht Den forgyldte Krone and the frigate Færøe. Den forgyldte Krone was ordered to run ahead and wait but ended up returning to Denmark after the Færøe under Capt. Zacharias Hansen Bang was delayed for repairs in Bergen. The Færøe completed her mission alone, establishing a settlement on St. Thomas on May 25, 1672. From an original contingent of 190 – 12 officials, 116 company "employees" (indentured servants), and 62 felons and former prostitutes – only 104 remained, 9 having escaped and 77 having died in transit. Another 75 died within the first year, leaving only 29 to carry on the colony.



In 1675, Iversen claimed St. John and placed two men there; in 1684, Governor Esmit granted it to two English merchants from Barbados but their men were chased off the island by two British sloops sent by Governor Stapleton of the British Leeward Islands. Further instructions in 1688 to establish a settlement on St. John seem not to have been acted on until Governor Bredal made an official establishment on March 25, 1718.

The islands quickly became a base for pirates attacking ships in the vicinity and also for the Brandenburg African Company. Governor Lorentz raised enormous taxes upon them and seized warehouses and cargoes of tobacco, sugar, and slaves in 1689 only to have his actions repudiated by the authorities in Copenhagen; his hasty action to seize Crab Island prohibited the Brandenburgers from establishing their own Caribbean colony, however. Possession of the island was subsequently disputed with the Scottish in 1698 and fully lost to the Spanish in 1811.

St. Croix was purchased from the French West Indies Company in 1733. In 1754, the islands were sold to the Danish king, Frederick V of Denmark, becoming royal Danish colonies.

The first British invasion and occupation of the Danish West Indies occurred during the French Revolutionary Wars when at the end of March 1801 a British fleet arrived at St Thomas. The Danes accepted the Articles of Capitulation the British proposed and the British occupied the islands without a shot being fired. The British occupation lasted until April 1802, when the British returned the islands to Denmark.

The second British invasion of the Danish West Indies took place during the Napoleonic Wars in December 1807 when a British fleet captured St Thomas on 22 December and Saint Croix on 25 December. The Danes did not resist and the invasion was bloodless. This British occupation of the Danish West Indies lasted until 20 November 1815, when Britain returned the islands to Denmark.

By the 1850s the Danish West Indies had a total population of about 41,000 people. The government of the islands were under a governor-general, whose jurisdiction extended to the other Danish colonies of the group. However, because the islands formerly belonged to Great Britain the inhabitants were English in customs and in language. The islands of that period consisted of:

St. Thomas had a population of 12,800 people and had sugar and cotton as its chief exports. St. Thomas city was the capital of the island, then a free port, and the chief station of the steam-packets between Southampton, in England, and the West Indies.
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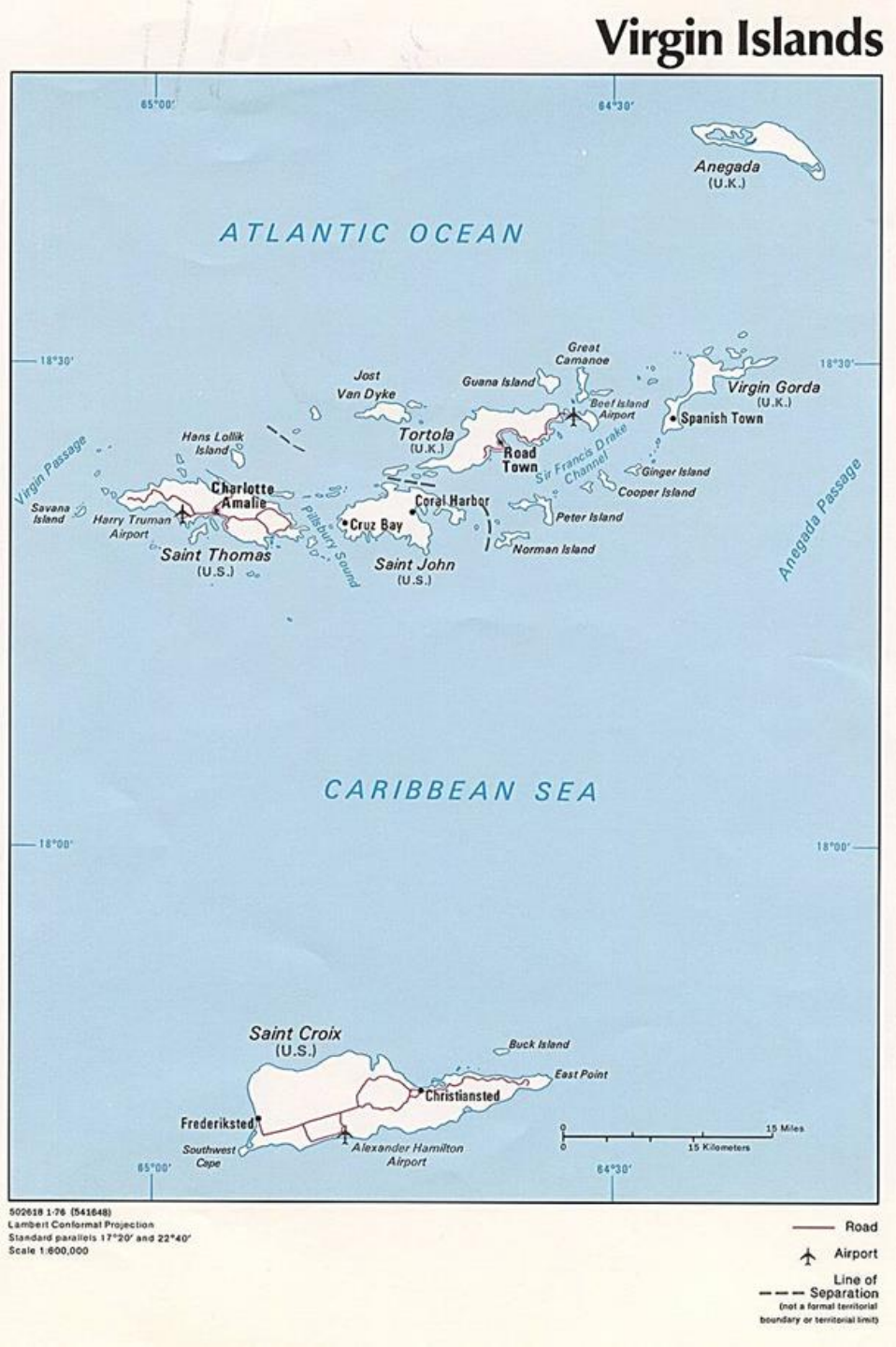


Fort Frederik in Frederiksted on the island Sanint Croix.

Mortalety year 1778 – 1787, and 14 travels

Slaves total	dead in Africa/on ship	dead on St. Croix
5 649	773 (83 %)	158 (17 %)

16 % mortalety

Constitution Hill, the Schimmelmann family's plantation on St. Croix

When Denmark abolished slavery in 1848, many plantation owners wanted full reimbursement on the grounds that their assets were damaged by the loss of the slaves, and by the fact that they would have to pay for labor in the future. The Danish government paid fifty dollars for every slave the plantation owners had owned and recognized that the slaves' release had caused a financial loss for the owners. However, the lives of the former slaves changed very little. Most were simply hired at the plantations where they had previously worked and were offered one-year contracts, a small hut, a little land and some money as part of a sharecropping system. However, as employees, former slaves were not the plantation owners' responsibility and did not receive food or care from their employers.

Ernst Heinrich von Schimmelmann (4 December 1747 – 9 February 1831) was a German-Danish politician, businessman and patron of the arts. His father was Heinrich Carl von Schimmelmann.

He contributed to the abolition of slave trade in Denmark by showing in a report, how Danish slave trade was inhumane and led to deficits. In the report, he also accounted for how better treatment of slaves in the Danish West Indies could reduce the large child mortality, which each year substantially reduced the slave population. Schimmelmann was not against slavery, but rather the ghastly Atlantic slave trade. Ernst Heinrich von Schimmelmann was a slave owner himself, owning a large sugar plantation on the island Saint Croix and being a shareholder in a company that transported slaves from the Gold Coast. He has been formally portrayed with his Negro slave in Copenhagen, where his family held several slaves.

As Minister of Finance, Schimmelmann's work to stop slave trade was started in 1792. Previously there had been no restrictions to trade, and as a compensation, he introduced government-subsidized loans for purchasing slaves prior to the ban. The Schimmelmann family became the richest family in Denmark in the 18th century largely due to the sugar trade with the West Indies, and dominated the economic life in Denmark.

Wealth from Slavetrade

Copenhagen

Schimmelmann Mansion

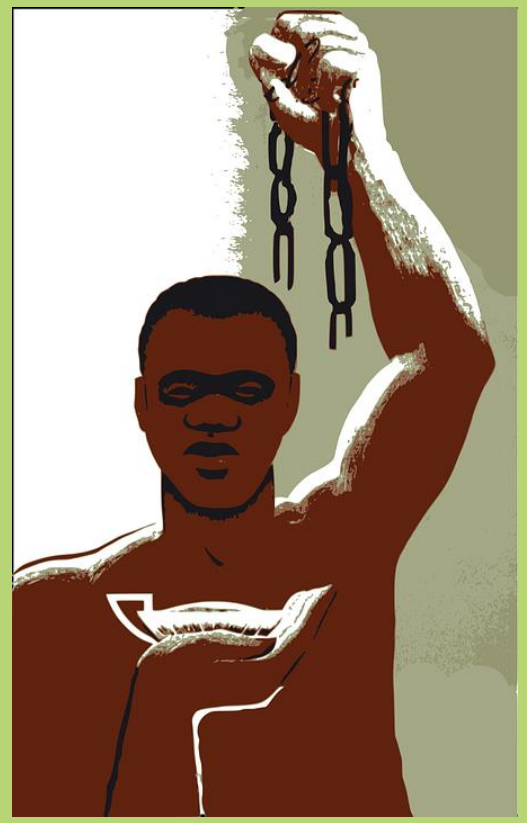
Wealth from Slavetrade Lindenborg Denmark

Heinrich Carl Schimmelmanns

On 17 January 1917, according to the Treaty of the Danish West Indies, the Danish government sold the islands to the United States for $25 million ($478 million in current prices), when the United States and Denmark exchanged their respective treaty ratifications. Danish administration ended on 31 March 1917, when the United States took formal possession of the territory and renamed it the United States Virgin Islands.

The United States had been interested in the islands since at least the 1860s. The United States finally acted in 1917 because of the islands' strategic position near the approach to the Panama Canal and because of a fear that Germany might seize them to use as U-boat bases during World War I.

DANMARK
30 50 km
järnväg huvudväg motorväg
AMT (LÄN)
1 Københavns Amt
2 Frederiksborg Amt
3 Roskilde Amt
4 Vestsjællands Amt
5 Storstrøms Amt
6 Bornholms Amt
7 Fyns Amt
8 Sønderjyllands Amt
9 Ribe Amt
10 Vejle Amt
11 Ringkøbing Amt
12 Århus Amt
13 Viborg Amt
14 Nordjyllands Amt
Skagerack
Kattegatt
Jylland
Fyn
Sjælland
Lolland
Falster
Bornholm
Vendsyssel
Himmerland
Als Bugt
Ålborg Bugt
Mariager Fjord
Limfjorden
Anholt
Læsø
Samsø
Anholt
Ærø
Fehmarn
Kielbukten
Storebælt
Lillebælt
Langeland Bælt
Femer Bælt
Øresund
Ålborg
Frederikshavn
Hirtshals
Skagen
Grenen
Tannis Bugt
Råbjerg Mile
Sindal
Hjørring
Løkken
Blokhus
Jammerbugten
Skarreklit
Bulbjerg
Hanstholm
Thisted
Klitmøller
Nykøbing Mors
Mors
Sallingsund
Sallingsund Bro
Nørresundby
Ålborg
Aggersund
Løgstør
Limfjorden
Nibe
Svenstrup
Vårst
Lindenborg
Lille Vildmose
Aars
Farsø
Arden
Hadsund
Hals
Limfjorden
Svinkløv
Broust
Åbybro
Asaa
Dronninglund
Hjallerup
Pandrup
Store Vildmose
Voersa
Bylderup-Bov
Bylderup
Jerslev
Skørping
Rebild
Bælum
Als
Mariager
Assens
Hobro
Arden
Hadsund
Mariager Fjord
Spentrup
Farup
Skals
Skalsø
Tjele
Tjele Langsø
Viborg
Randers
Djursland
Grenå
Fornæs
Ryomgård
Gjerrild
Fjellerup
Allingåbro
Auning
Kolind
Kolindsund
Trustrup
Tirstrup
Ebeltoft
Rønde
Mols
Hornslet
Vejlby
Risskov
Århus
Århus Bugt
Hjelm
Helgenæs
Gjerrild
Nordby
Tunø
Vejrø
Samsø Bælt
Sejerø
Sejerø Bugt
Nekselø
Asnæs
Isefjord
Kalundborg
Asnæs
Resnæs
Saltbæk Vig
Sejerø Bugt
Sunninge
Nyråd
Holbæk
Tølløse
Roskilde
Gyldenløveshøj
Hørve
Sorø
Ringsted
Slagelse
Haslev
Dalmose
Skælskør
Korsør
Næstved
Fakse
Fakse Ladeplads
Rødvig
Køge
Køge Bugt
Hundested
Frederiksværk
Gilleleje
Hornbæk
Hellerup
Helsingør
Hillerød
Birkerød
Frederiksund
Roskilde Fjord
Saltholm
Amager
Kastrup
Dragør
Tårnby
Hørsholm
Rungsted
Hvidovre
Store Heddinge
Stevns Klint
Falsterbo
Skanör
Limhamn
Malmö
Helsingborg
Landskrona
Öresund
Hallands Väderö
Laholmsbukten
Halmstad
Falkenberg
Skreanäs
Varbergs
Oskarström
Harplinge
Kullen
Mölle
Höganäs
Kattarp
Skälderviken
Torekov
Båstad
Hovs Hallar
Ängelholm
Helsingborg
Helsingör
Hornbæk
Gilleleje
Tisvildeleje
Frederiksværk
Hundested
Rørvig
Hesselø
Odden

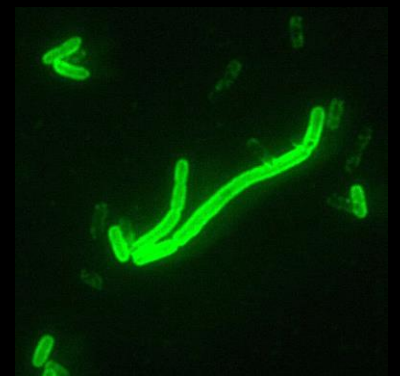


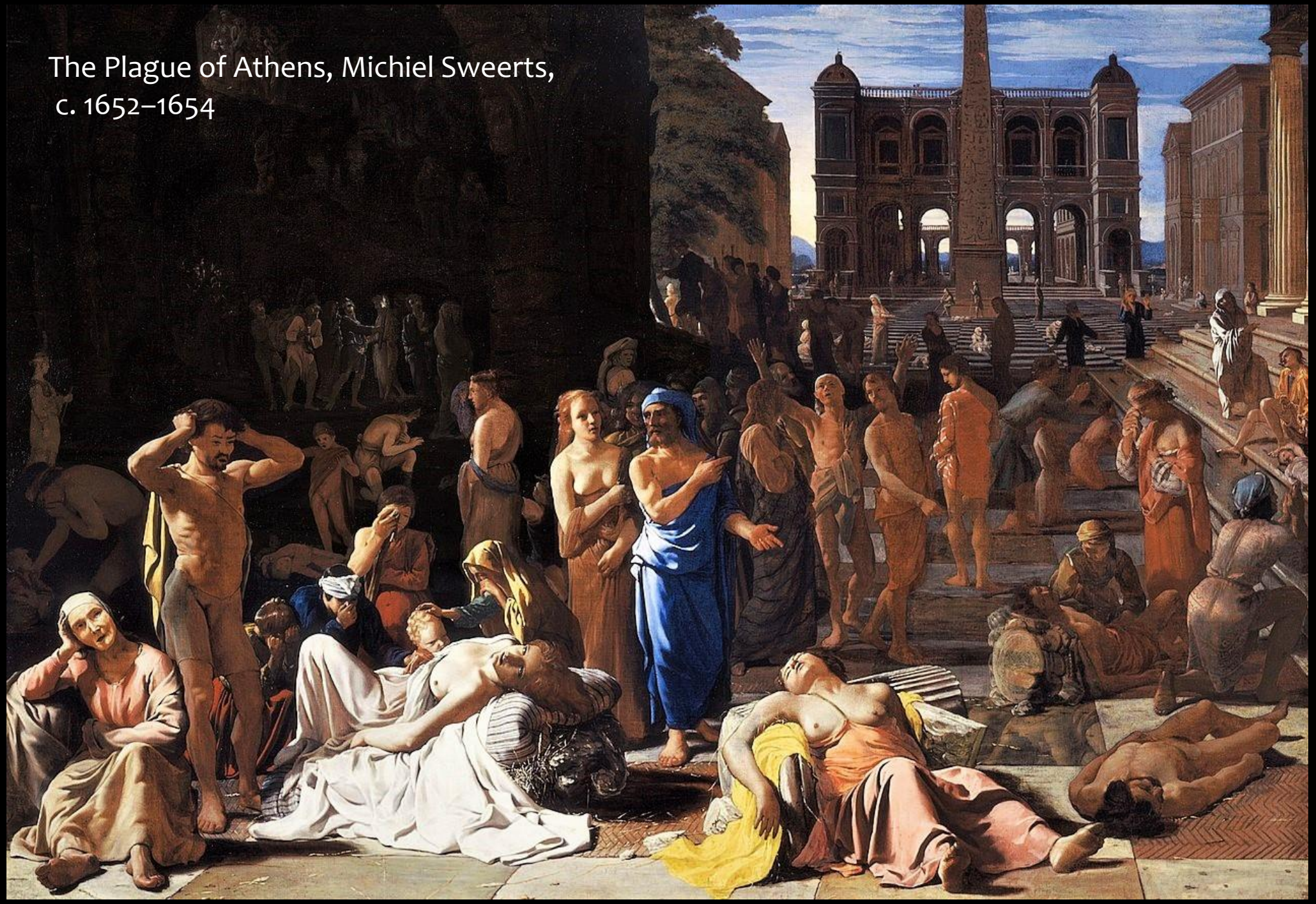
Year1754 Goverment of Denmark bought the islands. At the time the population where 208 free white and 1 000 colored slaves.
Year 1800 there where 35 000 slaves and 3 500 white free people on the islands.
Year 1803 new law prohibited the trade of slaves, but internal trading on the islands was OK. Year 1878 several plantage ownwers where murded in a riot.

Epidemics
430 B.C. – 1353 AD

Text Wikipedia / Slideshow Anders Dernback

Yersinia pestis





The Plague of Athens, Michiel Sweerts, c. 1652–1654

The city-state of Athens in ancient Greece during the second year of the Peloponnesian War (430 BC) when an Athenian victory still seemed within reach. The plague killed an estimated 75,000 to 100,000 people and is believed to have entered Athens main city through Piraeus, the city's port and sole source of food and supplies.

Plague of Athens 430 B.C.

Much of the eastern Mediterranean also saw an outbreak of the disease, albeit with less impact. The plague had serious effects on Athens' society, resulting in a lack of adherence to laws and religious belief; in response laws became stricter, resulting in the punishment of non-citizens claiming to be Athenian. The plague returned twice more, in 429 BC and in the winter of 427/426 BC. Some 30 pathogens have been suggested as having caused the plague.

A reconstructed appearance of Myrtis, an 11-year-old girl who died during the plague of Athens and whose skeleton was found in the Kerameikos mass grave, National Archaeological Museum of Athens

The plague was an unforeseen event that resulted in one of the largest recorded loss of life in ancient Greece as well as a breakdown of Athenian society. The balance of power between citizens had changed due to many of the rich dying and their fortunes being inherited by remaining relatives of the lower class. According to Thucydides, those who had become ill and survived were the most sympathetic to others suffering, believing that they can no longer succumb to any illness a number of survivors offered to assist with the remaining sick. It had also contributed to Athens' overall loss of power and ability to expand. Many of the remaining Athenians were found to be metics who had forged their documentation or had bribed officials to hide their original status. A number of these people were reduced to slaves once they were caught. This resulted in stricter laws dictating who can become an Athenian citizen, reducing both their number of potential soldiers and amount of political power, but also a decline in treatment and rights for metics in Athens. The plague dealt massive damage to Athens two years into the Peloponnesian War, from which it never recovered. Their political strength had weakened and morale among their armies as well as the citizens had fallen significantly.

Antonine Plague of 165 to 180 AD

The Antonine Plague of 165 to 180 AD, also known as the Plague of Galen (from the name of the Greek physician living in the Roman Empire who described it), was an ancient pandemic brought to the Roman Empire by troops returning from campaigns in the Near East. Scholars have suspected it to have been either smallpox or measles, but the true cause remains undetermined. The epidemic may have claimed the life of a Roman emperor, Lucius Verus, who died in 169 C.E and was the co-regent of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, whose family name, Antoninus, has become associated with the epidemic. The disease broke out again nine years later, according to the Roman historian Dio Cassius (155–235), causing up to 2,000 deaths a day in Rome, one quarter of those who were affected, giving the disease a mortality rate of about 25%. The total deaths have been estimated at 5 million, and the disease killed as much as one-third of the population in some areas and devastated the Roman army.

The angel of death striking a door during the plague of Rome; engraving by Levasseur after Jules-Elie Delaunay

The Plague of Cyprian about AD 249 to 262
Dead: 1 million + (Unknown, but at least)

The Plague of Cyprian was a pandemic that afflicted the Roman Empire from about AD 249 to 262. The plague is thought to have caused widespread manpower shortages for food production and the Roman army, severely weakening the empire during the Crisis of the Third Century. Its modern name commemorates St. Cyprian, bishop of Carthage, an early Christian writer who witnessed and described the plague. The agent of the plague is highly speculative due to sparse sourcing, but suspects include smallpox, pandemic influenza and viral hemorrhagic fever (filoviruses) like the Ebola virus.

The severe devastation to the European population from the two plagues may indicate that the people had no previous exposure or immunity to the plague's cause. Historian William Hardy McNeill asserts that both the earlier Antonine Plague (166–180) and the **Plague of Cyprian (251–270) were the first transfers from animal hosts to humanity of two different diseases, one of smallpox and one of measles although not necessarily in that order. D. Ch. Stathakopoulos asserts that both outbreaks were of smallpox.**

According to historian Kyle Harper, the symptoms attributed by ancient sources to the Plague of Cyprian better match a viral disease causing a hemorrhagic fever, such as ebola, rather than smallpox. (Conversely, Harper believes that the Antonine Plague was caused by smallpox.)

The Plague of Justinian (541–542 AD, with recurrences until 750) was a pandemic that afflicted the Byzantine (Eastern Roman) Empire and especially its capital, Constantinople, as well as the Sasanian Empire and port cities around the entire Mediterranean Sea. 25–100 million; 40–50% of population of Europe killed.

Some historians believe the plague of Justinian was one of the deadliest pandemics in history, resulting in the deaths of an estimated 25–100 million people during two centuries of recurrence, a death toll equivalent to as much as half of Europe's population at the time of the first outbreak. The plague's social and cultural impact has been compared to that of the Black Death that devastated Eurasia in the fourteenth century, but research published in 2019 argued that the plague's death toll and social effects have been exaggerated.

In 2013, researchers confirmed earlier speculation that the cause of the Plague of Justinian was Yersinia pestis, the same bacterium responsible for the Black Death (1347–1351). The latter was much shorter, but still killed an estimated one-third to one-half of Europeans. Ancient and modern Yersinia pestis strains closely related to the ancestor of the Justinian plague strain have been found in Tian Shan, a system of mountain ranges on the borders of Kyrgyzstan, Kazakhstan, and China, suggesting that the Justinian plague may have originated in or near that region.

The plague of 664 was a local plague that affected the British Isles. 10,000 +

It was the first recorded plague in English history, and coincided with a solar eclipse. It was referred to by later sources as "The Yellow Plague of 664 and said to have lasted for twenty to twenty-five years, causing widespread mortality, social disruption and abandonment of religious faith.
According to Irish sources (the annals of Tigernach), the plague was preceded by a solar eclipse on May 1, 664 (a total eclipse indeed did occur on May 1, 664 over North America in the vicinity of Long Island, and a partial eclipse possibly would have been visible from Ireland). Bede also mentioned the eclipse but wrongly placed it on May 3.

The Irish sources claimed that there was also an earthquake in Britain and that the plague reached Ireland first at Mag Nitha, among the Fothairt in Leinster. Bede claimed that the plague first was in the south of Britain and then spread to the north.
According to Adomnan of Iona, a contemporary Irish abbot and saint, the plague affected everywhere in the British Isles except for a large area in what would now be modern Scotland. Adomnan considered the plague a divine punishment for sins, and he believed that the Picts and Irish who lived in northern Great Britain were spared from the plague due to the intercession of St Columba who had founded monasteries among them. Adomnan personally walked among victims of the plague and claimed that neither he nor his companions became sick.

Columba banging on the gate of Bridei, son of Maelchon, King of Fortriu.

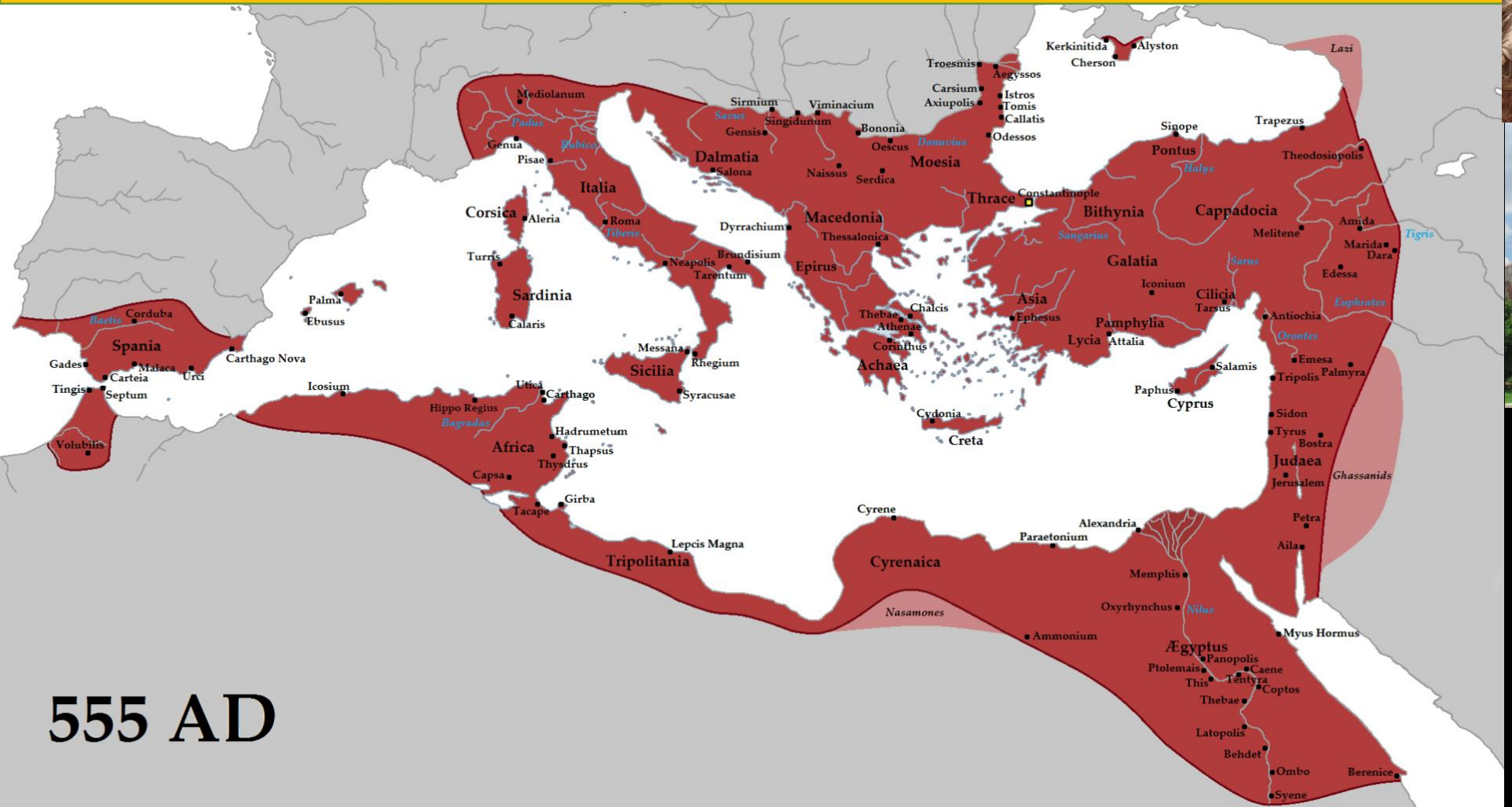
Columba Scots: Columbkille 7 December 521 – 9 June 597) was an Irish abbot and missionary evangelist credited with spreading Christianity in what is today Scotland at the start of the Hiberno-Scottish mission. He founded the important abbey on Iona, which became a dominant religious and political institution in the region for centuries. He is the patron saint of Derry. He was highly regarded by both the Gaels of Dál Riata and the Picts, and is remembered today as a Catholic saint and one of the Twelve Apostles of Ireland. In Ireland, he is commonly known as Colmcille.

735–737 Japanese smallpox epidemic
2 million dead

Epidemic of the Tenpyō era") was a major smallpox epidemic that afflicted much of Japan. Killing approximately 1/3 of the entire Japanese population, the epidemic had significant social, economic, and religious repercussions throughout the country.
Death: 2 million (Approx. 1⁄3 of entire Japanese population).

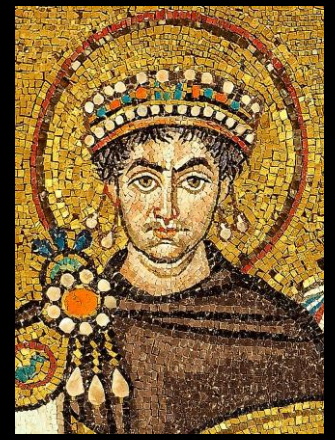
A few decades prior to the outbreak, Japanese court officials had adopted the Chinese policy of reporting disease outbreaks among the general population. This recording practice greatly facilitated the identification of smallpox as the disease that afflicted Japan during the years 735-737.
Increased contact between Japan and the Asian mainland had led to more frequent and serious outbreaks of infectious diseases. The smallpox epidemic of 735-737 was recorded as having taken hold around 735's month of August in the city of Dazaifu, Fukuoka in northern Kyushu, where the infection had ostensibly been carried by a Japanese fisherman who had contracted the illness after being stranded on the Korean peninsula. The disease spread rapidly throughout northern Kyushu that year, and persisted into the next. By 736, many land tenants in Kyushu were either dying or forsaking their crops, leading to poor agricultural yields and ultimately famine.

The empire in 555 under Justinian the Great, at its greatest extent since the fall of the Western Roman Empire (its vassals in pink)



555 AD

Plague of 746–747



The Black Death, also known as the Pestilence, the Great Bubonic Plague, the Great Plague or the Plague, or less commonly the Great Mortality or the Black Plague

1346 | 1347 | 1348 | 1349 | 1350 | 1351 | 1352 | 1353

Approximate border between the Principality of Kiev and the Golden Horde - passage prohibited for Christians.

Land trade routes

Maritime trade routes

Dead
75–200 million (10–60% of European population)

Was the most devastating pandemic recorded in human history, resulting in the deaths of an estimated 75 to 200 million people in Eurasia, peaking in Europe from 1347 to 1351. The bacterium Yersinia pestis, which results in several forms of plague (septicemic, pneumonic and, the most common, bubonic), is believed to have been the cause. The Black Death was the first major European outbreak of plague and the second plague pandemic. The plague created a number of religious, social and economic upheavals, with profound effects on the course of European history.

Consequences

Death toll

Citizens of Tournai bury plague victims
There are no exact figures for the death toll; the rate varied widely by locality. In urban centres, the greater the population before the outbreak, the longer the duration of the period of abnormal mortality. **It killed some 75 to 200 million people in Eurasia**. According to medieval historian Philip Daileader in 2007:

The trend of recent research is pointing to a figure more like 45–50% of the European population dying during a four-year period. There is a fair amount of geographic variation. In Mediterranean Europe, areas such as Italy, the south of France and Spain, where plague ran for about four years consecutively, it was probably closer to 75–80% of the population. In Germany and England ... it was probably closer to 20%.

Death toll

Half of Paris's population of 100,000 people died. In Italy, the population of Florence was reduced from 110,000–120,000 inhabitants in 1338 down to 50,000 in 1351. At least 60% of the population of Hamburg and Bremen perished, and a similar percentage of Londoners may have died from the disease as well. In London approximately 62,000 people died between 1346 and 1353. While contemporary reports account of mass burial pits being created in response to the large numbers of dead, recent scientific investigations of a burial pit in Central London found well-preserved individuals to be buried in isolated, evenly spaced graves, suggesting at least some pre-planning and Christian burials at this time.[98] Before 1350, there were about 170,000 settlements in Germany, and this was reduced by nearly 40,000 by 1450.

The most widely accepted estimate for the Middle East, including Iraq, Iran and Syria, during this time, is for a death toll of about a third of the population. The Black Death killed about 40% of Egypt's population.

Dolores Costello 1923

THE GREAT ZIEGFELD
William POWELL
MYRNA LOY
LUISE RAINER
The Sensation of the Century!
FRANK MORGAN · FANNIE BRICE
VIRGINIA BRUCE · REGINALD OWEN
RAY BOLGER · ERNEST COSSART
NAT PENDLETON · HARRIET HOCTOR · JOSEPH CAWTHORN
A Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer PICTURE

The Ziegfeld Follies was a series of elaborate theatrical revue productions on Broadway in New York City **from 1907 to 1931**, with renewals in 1934 and 1936. They became a radio program in 1932 and 1936 as The Ziegfeld Follies of the Air.

Inspired by the **Folies Bergère of Paris**, the Ziegfeld Follies were conceived and mounted by Florenz Ziegfeld Jr., reportedly at the suggestion of his then-wife, the stage actress and singer Anna Held. The shows' producers were turn-of-the-twentieth-century producing titans Klaw & Erlanger.

The Follies were a series of lavish revues, something between later Broadway shows and the more elaborate high class vaudeville and variety show. **The first Follies was produced in 1907** at the roof theatre Jardin de Paris.

During the Follies era, many of the top entertainers, including W. C. Fields, Eddie Cantor, Josephine Baker, Fanny Brice, Ann Pennington, Bert Williams, Eva Tanguay, Bob Hope, Will Rogers, Ruth Etting, Ray Bolger, Helen Morgan, Louise Brooks, Marilyn Miller, Ed Wynn, Gilda Gray, Nora Bayes and Sophie Tucker appeared in the shows.

Doris Eaton Travis (1904-2010)

Marion Davies

Marion Davies

Anna Held

MISS BESSIE CLAYTON, WITH LEW FIELDS STOCK CO.

After Ziegfeld's death his widow, actress Billie Burke, authorized use of his name for Ziegfeld Follies in 1934 and 1936 to Jake Shubert, who then produced the Follies. The name was later used by other promoters in New York City, Philadelphia, and again on Broadway, with less connection to the original Follies. These later efforts failed miserably. When the show toured, the 1934 edition was recorded in its entirety, from the overture to play-out music, on a series of 78 rpm discs, which were edited by the record producer David Cunard to form an album of the highlights of the production and which was released as a CD in 1997.

The Great Ziegfeld is a 1936 American musical and drama film directed by Robert Z. Leonard and produced by Hunt Stromberg. It stars William Powell as the theatrical impresario Florenz "Flo" Ziegfeld Jr., Luise Rainer as Anna Held, and Myrna Loy as Billie Burke.

A PRETTY GIRL IS LIKE A MELODY

F. Ziegfeld Jr., Presents

ZIEGFELD FOLLIES of 1919

Staged by NED WAYBURN

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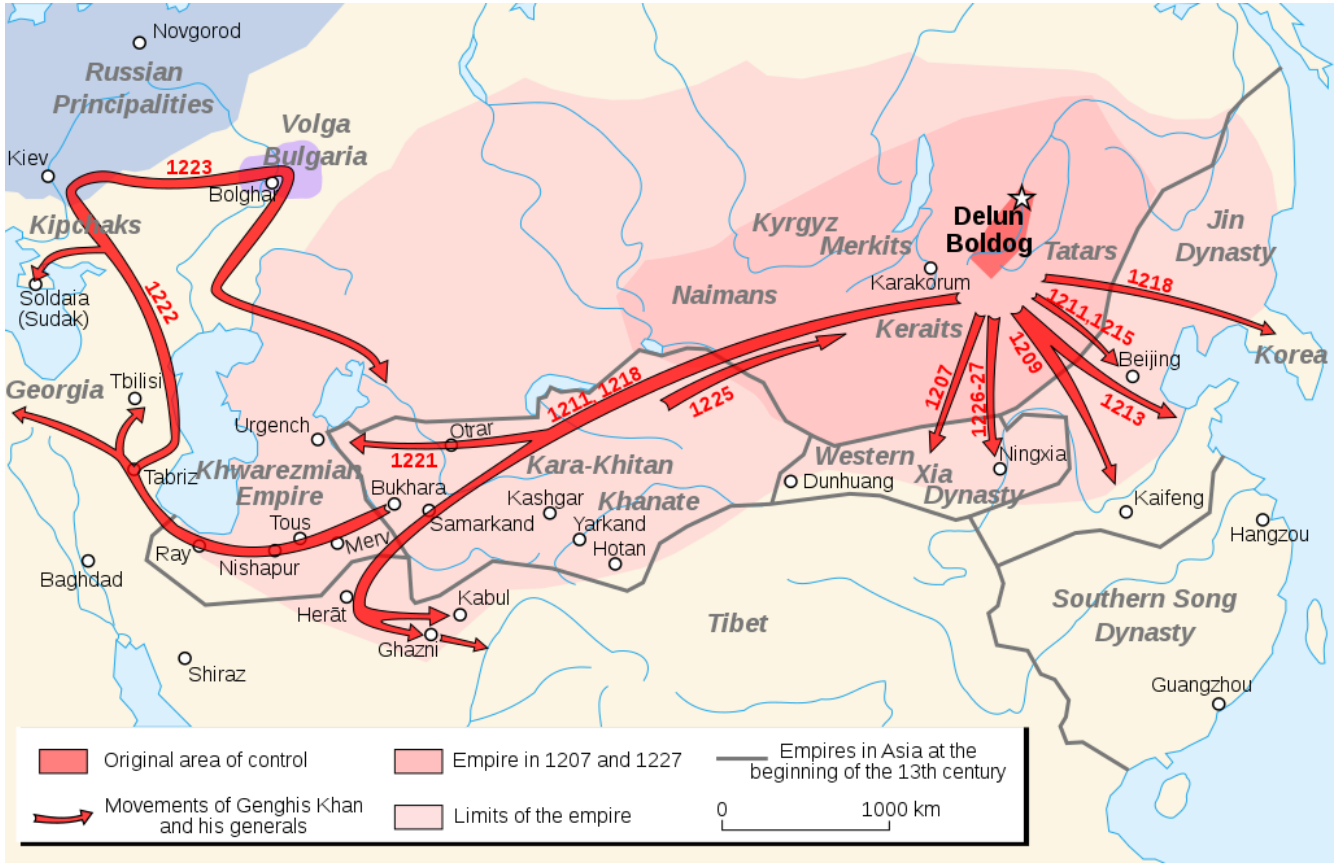
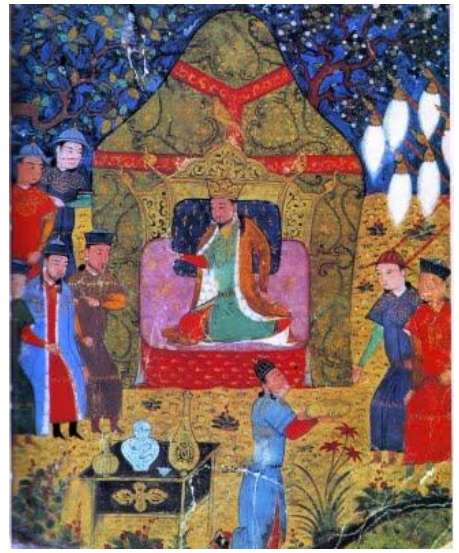
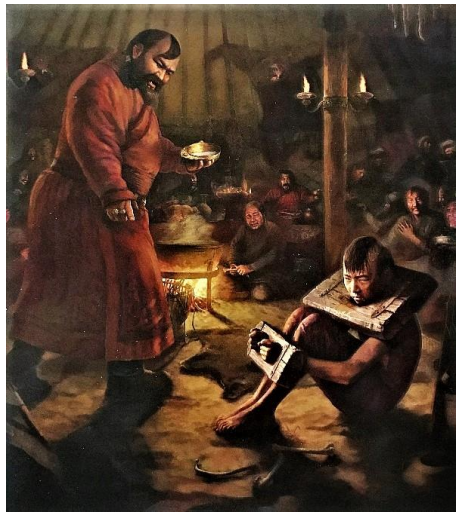


Genghis Khan

was the founder and first Great Khan (Emperor) of the Mongol Empire, which became the largest contiguous empire in history after his death. He came to power by uniting many of the nomadic tribes of Northeast Asia, and, after being proclaimed the universal ruler of the Mongols, or Genghis Khan

Genghis Khan and his empire have a fearsome reputation in local histories. Many medieval chroniclers and modern historians describe Genghis Khan's conquests as wholesale destruction on an unprecedented scale, causing great demographic changes and a drastic decline of population as a result of mass exterminations and famine. A conservative estimate amounts to about four million civilians (whereas other figures range from forty to sixty million) who lost their lives as a consequence of Genghis Khan's military campaigns. In contrast, Buddhist Uyghurs of the kingdom of Qocho, who willingly left the Qara Khitai empire to become Mongol vassals, viewed him as a liberator. Genghis Khan was also portrayed positively by early Renaissance sources out of respect for the great spread of culture, technology and ideas under the Mongol Empire. By the end of the Great Khan's life, the Mongol Empire occupied a substantial portion of Central Asia and China. Due to his exceptional military successes, Genghis Khan is often considered to be one of the greatest conquerors of all time. Beyond his military accomplishments, Genghis Khan also advanced the Mongol Empire in other ways. He decreed the adoption of the Uyghur script as the Mongol Empire's writing system. He also practised meritocracy and encouraged religious tolerance in the Mongol Empire, unifying the nomadic tribes of Northeast Asia. Present-day Mongolians regard him as the founding father of Mongolia. He is also credited with bringing the Silk Road under one cohesive political environment. This brought relatively easy communication and trade between Northeast Asia, Muslim Southwest Asia, and Christian Europe, expanding the cultural horizons of all three areas.

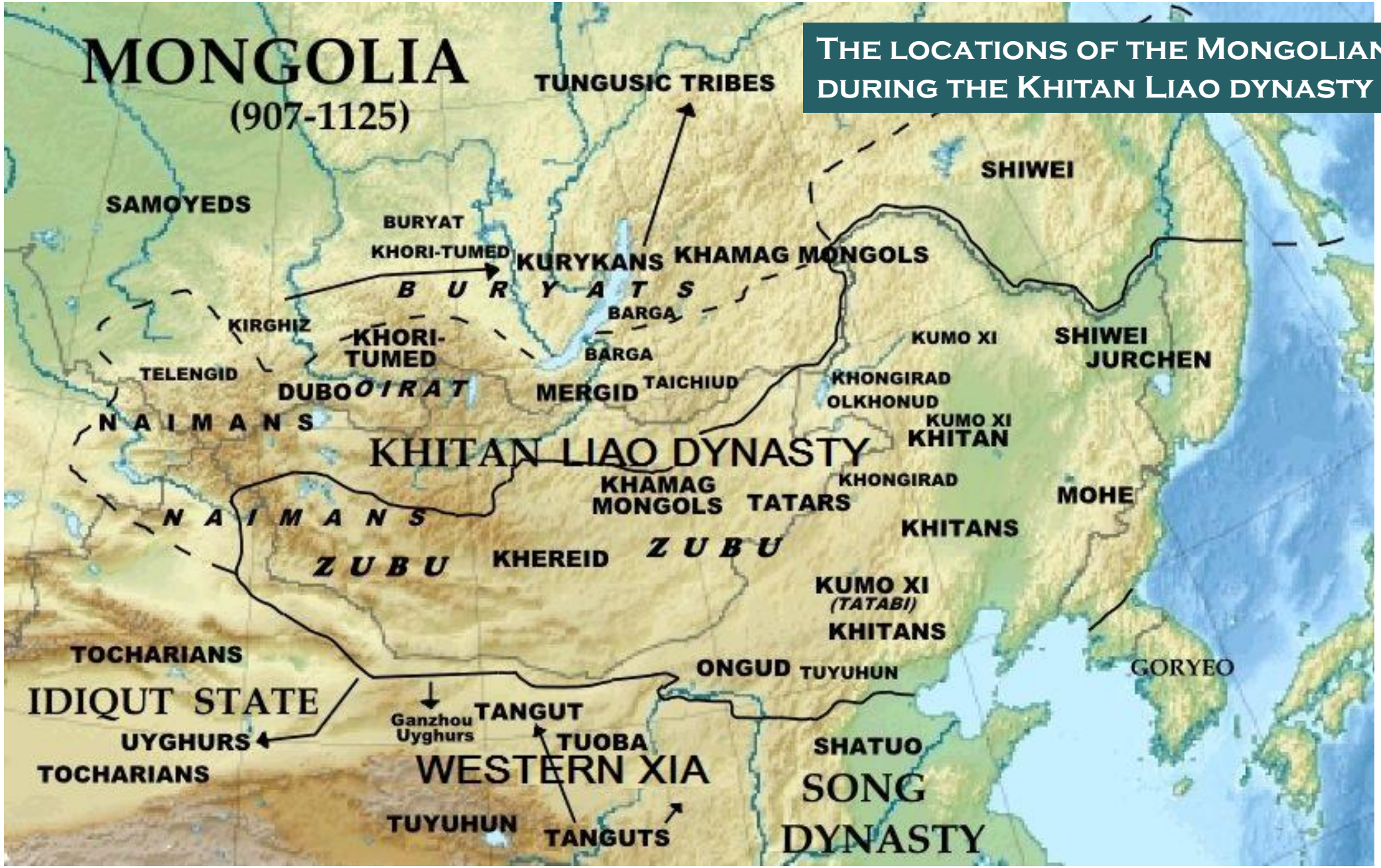




Genghis Khan was probably born in 1162 in Delüün Boldog, near the mountain Burkhan Khaldun and the rivers Onon and Kherlen in modern-day northern Mongolia, close to the current capital Ulaanbaatar. The Secret History of the Mongols reports that Temüjin was born grasping a blood clot in his fist, a traditional sign that he was destined to become a great leader.
He was the first son of Hoelun, second wife of his father Yesügei, who was a Kiyad chief prominent in the Khamag Mongol confederation and an ally of Toghrul of the Keraite tribe.
Yesukhei's clan was Borjigin (Боржигин), and Hoelun was from the Olkhunut sub-lineage of the Khongirad tribe. Like other tribes, they were nomads. Temüjin's noble background made it easier for him to solicit help from and eventually consolidate the other Mongol tribes.

Genghis Khan was related on his father's side to Khabul Khan, Ambaghai, and Hotula Khan, who had headed the Khamag Mongol confederation and were descendants of Bodonchar Munkhag (c. 900). When the Jurchen Jin dynasty switched support from the Mongols to the Tatars in 1161, they destroyed Khabul Khan.
Genghis Khan's father, Yesügei (leader of the Kiyat-Borjigin clan and nephew to Ambaghai and Hotula Khan), emerged as the head of the ruling Mongol clan. This position was contested by the rival Tayichi'ud clan, who descended directly from Ambaghai. When the Tatars grew too powerful after 1161, the Jin switched their support from the Tatars to the Keraites.
Little is known about Genghis Khan's early life, due to the lack of contemporary written records. The few sources that give insight into this period often contradict.

The locations of the Mongolian tribes during the Khitan Liao dynasty (907–1125)



Uniting the Mongol confederations, 1184–1206

In the early 12th century, the Central Asian plateau north of China was divided into several prominent tribal confederations, including Naimans, Merkits, Tatars, Khamag Mongols, and Keraites, that were often unfriendly towards each other, as evidenced by random raids, revenge attacks, and plundering.

Early attempts at power

Temüjin began his ascent to power by offering himself as an ally (or, according to other sources, a vassal) to his father's anda (sworn brother or blood brother) Toghrul, who was Khan of the Keraites. This relationship was first reinforced when Börte was kidnapped by Merkits in around 1184. To win her back, Temüjin called on the support of Toghrul, who offered 20,000 of his Keraite warriors and suggested that Temüjin involve his childhood friend Jamukha, who was Khan of his own tribe, the Jadaran.

As Jamukha and Temüjin drifted apart in their friendship, each began consolidating power, and they became rivals. Jamukha supported the traditional Mongolian aristocracy, while Temüjin followed a meritocratic method, and attracted a broader range and lower class of followers. Following his earlier defeat of the Merkits, and a proclamation by the shaman Kokochu that the Eternal Blue Sky had set aside the world for Temüjin, Temüjin began rising to power. In 1186, Temüjin was elected khan of the Mongols. Threatened by this rise, Jamukha attacked Temujin in 1187 with an army of 30,000 troops. Temüjin gathered his followers to defend against the attack, but was decisively beaten in the Battle of Dalan Balzhut. However, Jamukha horrified and alienated potential followers by boiling 70 young male captives alive in cauldrons. Toghrul, as Temüjin's patron, was exiled to the Qara Khitai. The life of Temüjin for the next 10 years is unclear, as historical records are mostly silent on that period.

Around the year 1197, the Jin initiated an attack against their formal vassal, the Tatars, with help from the Keraites and Mongols. Temüjin commanded part of this attack, and after victory, he and Toghrul were restored by the Jin to positions of power. The Jin bestowed Toghrul with the honorable title of Ong Khan, and Temüjin with a lesser title of j'aut quri.

Around 1200, the main rivals of the Mongol confederation (traditionally the "Mongols") were the Naimans to the west, the Merkits to the north, the Tanguts to the south, and the Jin to the east.

Jurchen inscription (1196) in Mongolia relating to Genghis Khan's alliance with the Jin against the Tatars
In his rule and his conquest of rival tribes, Temüjin broke with Mongol tradition in a few crucial ways. He delegated authority based on merit and loyalty, rather than family ties. As an incentive for absolute obedience and the Yassa code of law, Temüjin promised civilians and soldiers wealth from future war spoils. When he defeated rival tribes, he did not drive away their soldiers and abandon their civilians. Instead, he took the conquered tribe under his protection and integrated its members into his own tribe. He would even have his mother adopt orphans from the conquered tribe, bringing them into his family. These political innovations inspired great loyalty among the conquered people, making Temüjin stronger with each victory.

Military campaigns, 1207–1227

During the 1206 political rise of Genghis Khan, the Mongol Empire created by Genghis Khan and his allies shared its western borders with the of the Tangut Western Xia dynasty. To the east and south of the Western Xia dynasty was the militarily superior Jin dynasty, founded by the Manchurian Jurchens, who ruled northern China as well as being the traditional overlords of the Mongolian tribes for centuries.

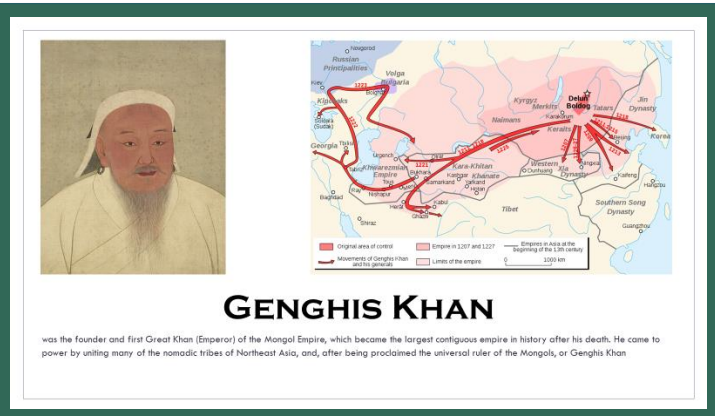
Though militarily inferior to the neighboring Jin, the Western Xia still exerted a significant influence upon the adjacent northern steppes. Following the death of the Keraites leader Ong Khan to Temujin's emerging Mongol Empire in 1203, Keriat leader Nilqa Senggum led a small band of followers into Western Xia before later being expelled from Western Xia territory.

By invading Western Xia, Temujin would gain a tribute-paying vassal, and also would take control of caravan routes along the Silk Road and provide the Mongols with valuable revenue. Furthermore, from Western Xia he could launch raids into the even more wealthy Jin dynasty. He correctly believed that the more powerful young ruler of the Jin dynasty would not come to the aid of the Western Xia. When the Tanguts requested help from the Jin dynasty, they were refused.[49] Despite initial difficulties in capturing Western Xia cities, Genghis Khan managed to force Emperor Renzong to submit to vassal status.

In 1211, after the conquest of Western Xia, Genghis Khan planned again to conquer the Jin dynasty. Luckily for the Mongols, Wanyan Jiujin, the field commander of the Jin army made several tactical mistakes, including avoiding attacking the Mongols at the first opportunity using his overwhelming numerical superiority, and instead initially fortifying behind the Great wall.

Genghis besieged the Jin capital of Zhongdu (modern-day Beijing). According to Ivar Lissner, the inhabitants resorted to firing gold and silver cannon shot on the Mongols with their muzzle-loading cannons when their supply of metal for ammunition ran out. The city was captured and sacked. This forced the Jin ruler, Emperor Xuanzong, to move his capital south to Kaifeng, abandoning the northern half of his empire to the Mongols. Between 1232 and 1233, Kaifeng fell to the Mongols under the reign of Genghis's third son, Ögedei Khan. The Jin dynasty collapsed in 1234, after the siege of Caizhou.

Kuchlug, the deposed Khan of the Naiman confederation that Temüjin defeated and folded into his Mongol Empire, fled west and usurped the khanate of Qara Khitai (also known as the Western Liao, as it was originally established as remnants of the Liao dynasty). Genghis Khan decided to conquer the Qara Khitai and defeat Kuchlug, possibly to take him out of power. By this time the Mongol army was exhausted from ten years of continuous campaigning in China against the Western Xia and Jin dynasty. Therefore, Genghis sent only two tumen (20,000 soldiers) against Kuchlug, under his younger general, Jebe, known as "The Arrow".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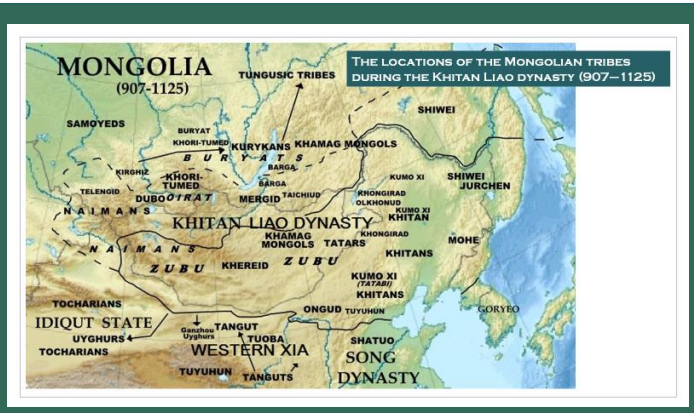
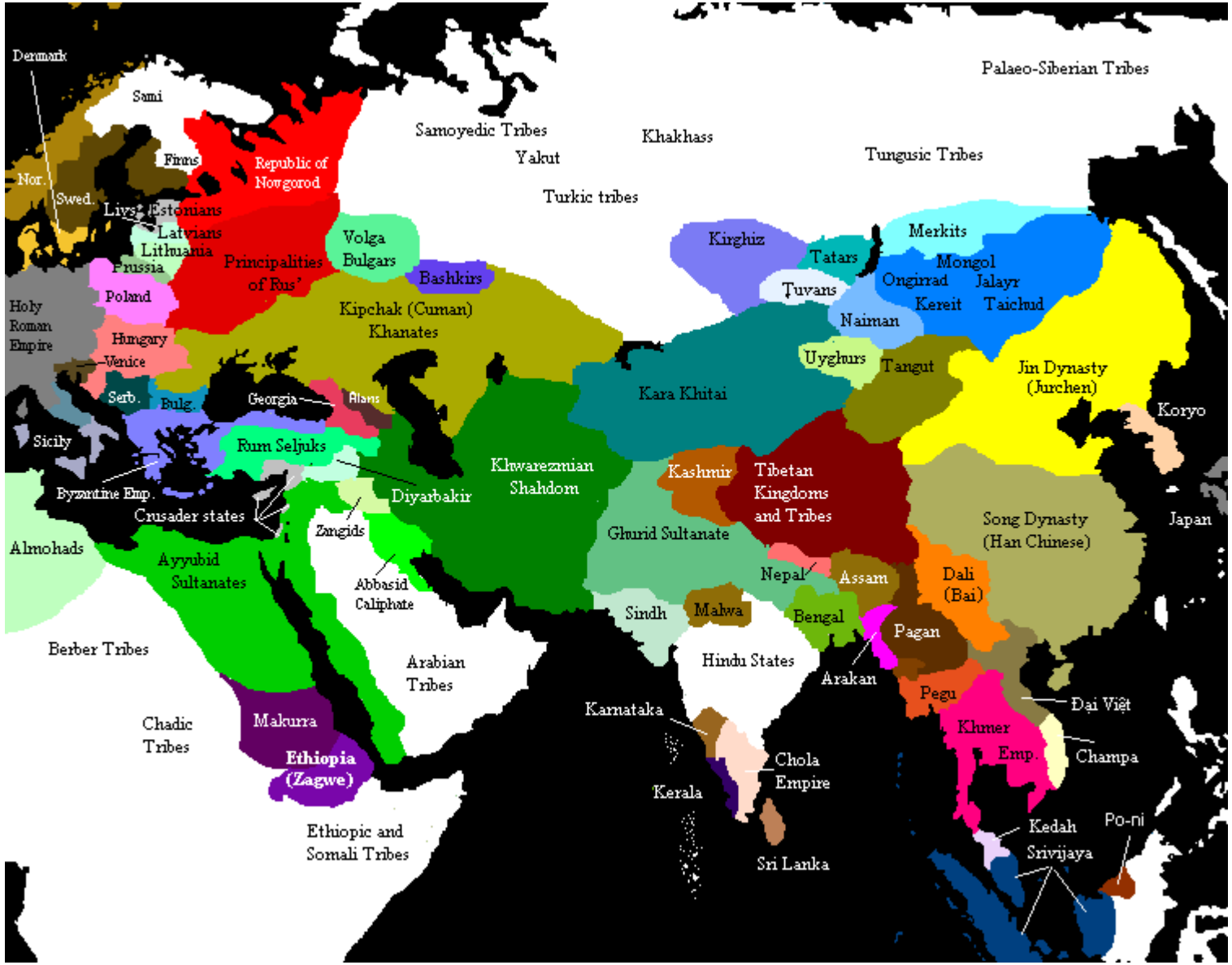
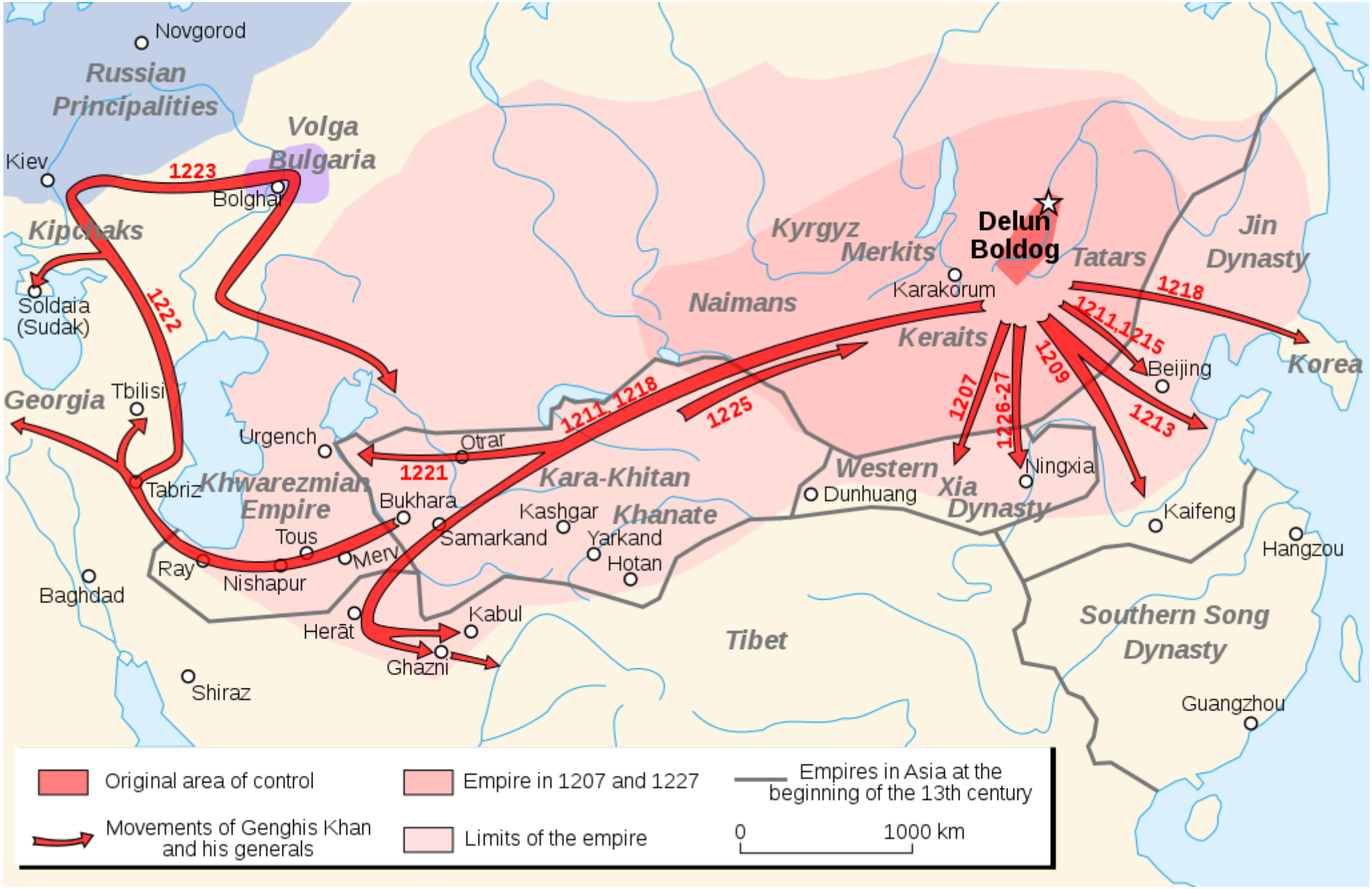




Khwarazmian Empire (green) c. 1200, on the eve of the Mongol invasions

In the early 13th century, the Khwarazmian dynasty was governed by Shah Ala ad-Din Muhammad. Genghis Khan saw the potential advantage in Khwarazmia as a commercial trading partner using the Silk Road, and he initially sent a 500-man caravan to establish official trade ties with the empire. Genghis Khan and his family and commanders invested in the caravan gold, silver, silk, various kinds of textiles and fabrics and pelts to trade with the Muslim traders in the Khwarazmian lands.


Novgorod
Russian Principalities
Volga Bulgaria
Kiev
1223
Bolghar
Kipchaks
Soldaia (Sudak)
1222
Georgia
Tbilisi
Urgench
Otrar
1211, 1218
1225
1221
Khwarezmian Empire
Tabriz
Bukhara
Kara-Khitan Khanate
Kashgar
Samarkand
Yarkand
Hotan
Tous
Merv
Ray
Nishapur
Baghdad
Herāt
Kabul
Ghazni
Shiraz
Tibet
Kyrgyz
Merkits
Naimans
Karakorum
Delun Boldog
Tatars
Jin Dynasty
Keraits
1218
1211,1215
1209
1207
1226-27
1213
Beijing
Korea
Western Xia Dynasty
Dunhuang
Ningxia
Kaifeng
Hangzou
Southern Song Dynasty
Guangzhou
Original area of control
Empire in 1207 and 1227
Empires in Asia at the beginning of the 13th century
Movements of Genghis Khan and his generals
Limits of the empire
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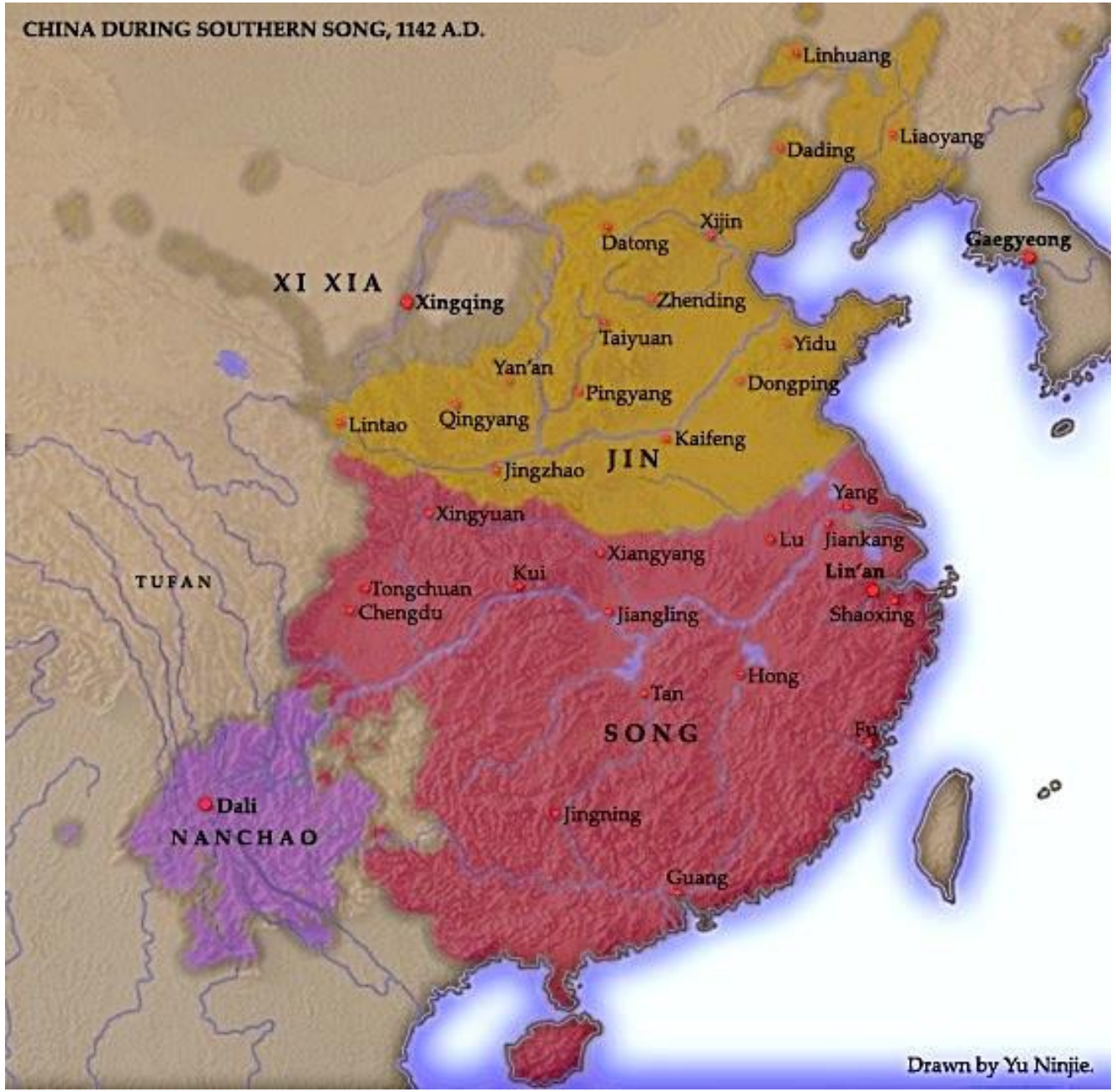
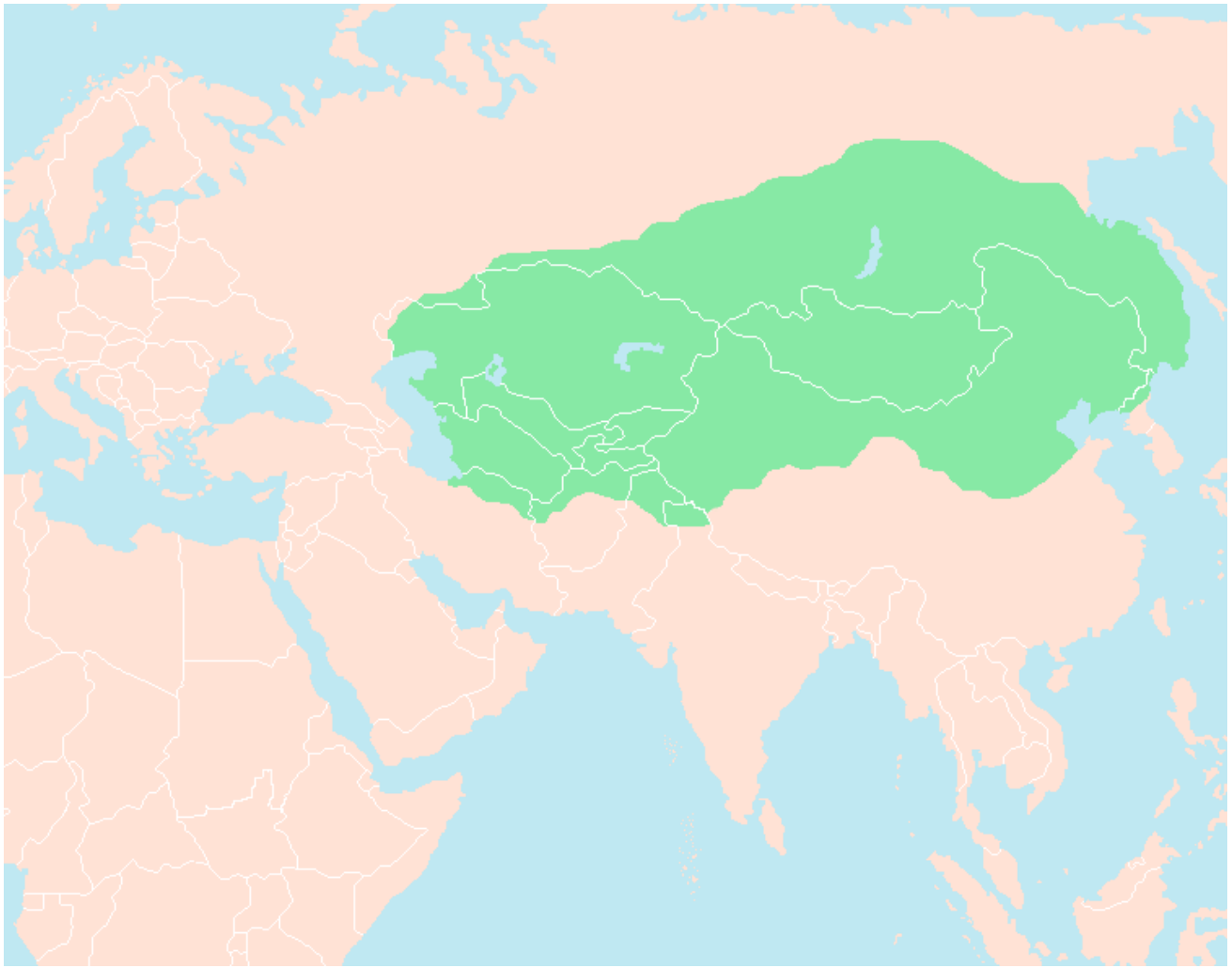
1000 km



Western Xia dynasty, Jin/Jurchen dynasty, Song dynasty and Kingdom of Dali in 1142

The vassal emperor of the Tanguts (Western Xia) had earlier refused to take part in the Mongol war against the Khwarezmid Empire. Western Xia and the defeated Jin dynasty formed a coalition to resist the Mongols, counting on the campaign against the Khwarazmians to preclude the Mongols from responding effectively. In 1226, immediately after returning from the west, Genghis Khan began a retaliatory attack on the Tanguts. His armies quickly took Heisui, Ganzhou, and Suzhou (not the Suzhou in Jiangsu province), and in the autumn he took Xiliang-fu. One of the Tangut generals challenged the Mongols to a battle near Helan Mountains but was defeated.

Mongol Empire in 1227 at Genghis Khan's death



Genghis Khan died in August 1227, during the fall of Yinchuan, which is the capital of Western Xia. The exact cause of his death remains a mystery, and is variously attributed to being killed in action against the Western Xia, illness, falling from his horse, or wounds sustained in hunting or battle. According to The Secret History of the Mongols, Genghis Khan fell from his horse while hunting and died because of the injury. He was already old and tired from his journeys. The Galician–Volhynian Chronicle alleges he was killed by the Western Xia in battle, while Marco Polo wrote that he died after the infection of an arrow wound he received during his final campaign. Later Mongol chronicles connect Genghis's death with a Western Xia princess taken as war booty. One chronicle from the early 17th century even relates the legend that the princess hid a small dagger and stabbed him, though some Mongol authors have doubted this version and suspected it to be an invention by the rival Oirads.

Genghis Khan (center) at the coronation of his son Ögedei, Rashid al-Din, early 14th century

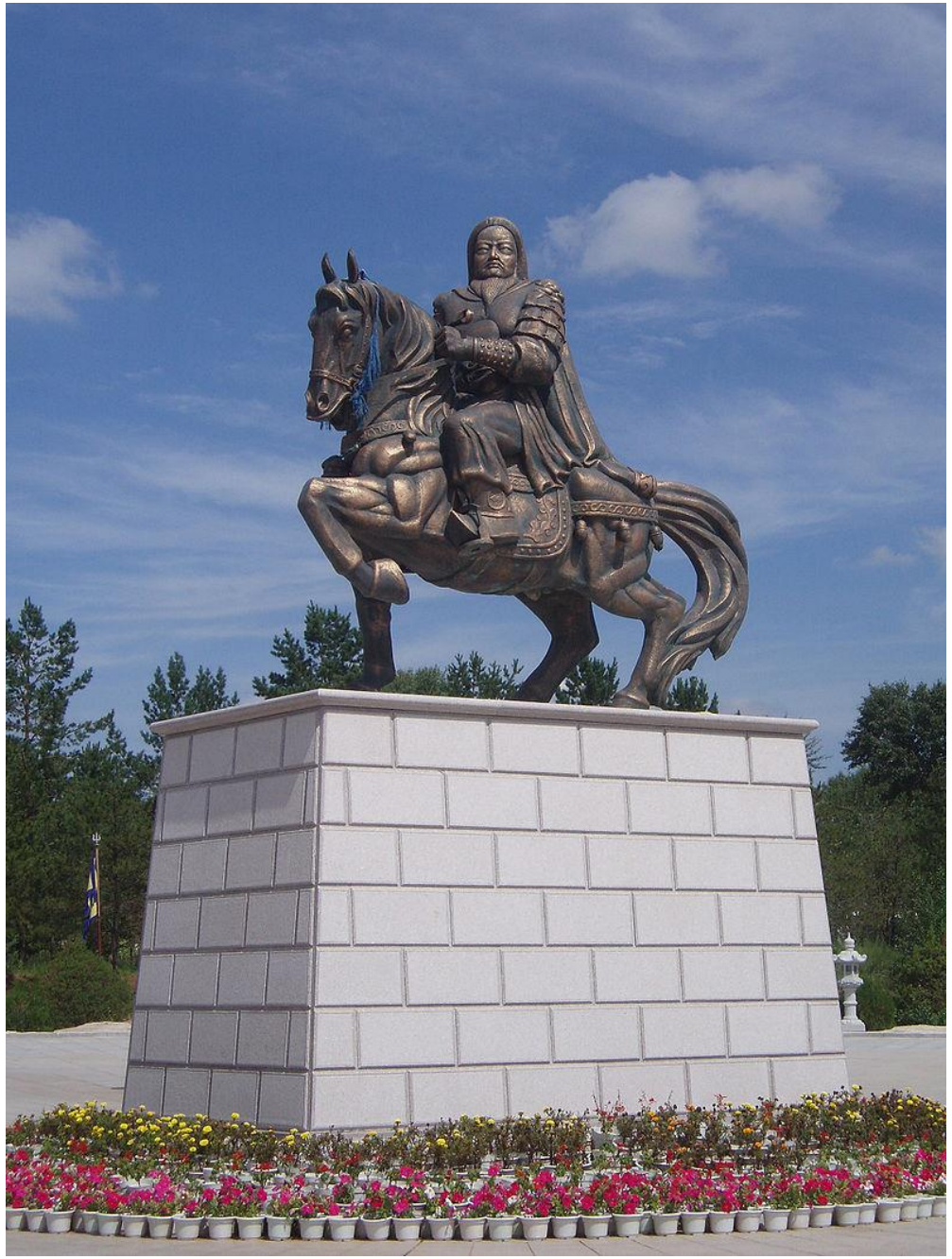
Years before his death, Genghis Khan asked to be buried without markings, according to the customs of his tribe.[73] After he died, his body was returned to Mongolia and presumably to his birthplace in Khentii Aimag, where many assume he is buried somewhere close to the Onon River and the Burkhan Khaldun mountain (part of the Kentii mountain range). According to legend, the funeral escort killed anyone and anything across their path to conceal where he was finally buried. The Genghis Khan Mausoleum, constructed many years after his death, is his memorial, but not his burial site.

Before Genghis Khan died, he assigned Ögedei Khan as his successor. Genghis Khan left behind an army of more than 129,000 men; 28,000 were given to his various brothers and his sons. Tolui, his youngest son, inherited more than 100,000 men. This force contained the bulk of the elite Mongolian cavalry. By tradition, the youngest son inherits his father's property.

The Mongol military was also successful in siege warfare, cutting off resources for cities and towns by diverting certain rivers, taking enemy prisoners and driving them in front of the army, and adopting new ideas, techniques and tools from the people they conquered, particularly in employing Muslim and Chinese siege engines and engineers to aid the Mongol cavalry in capturing cities. Another standard tactic of the Mongol military was the commonly practiced feigned retreat to break enemy formations and to lure small enemy groups away from the larger group and defended position for ambush and counterattack.

Another important aspect of the military organization of Genghis Khan was the communications and supply route or Yam, adapted from previous Chinese models. Genghis Khan dedicated special attention to this in order to speed up the gathering of military intelligence and official communications. To this end, Yam waystations were established all over the empire.

Genghis Khan and Great Khans of the Yuan dynasty, late 13th and early 14th-century Yuan paintings



Genghis Khan Monument in Hohhot, Inner Mongolia, China